Bihar District Gazetteers

CHAMPARAN

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शारदा पुस्तकालय
(संभावना शो. द. केंद्र)
क्रमांक 252

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Bihar District Gazetteers

CHAMPARAN

By

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सत्यमेव जयते

PRINTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT
SECRETARIAT PRESS, BIHAR, PATNA
1960

[*Price—Rupees Ten only.*]

PREFACE.

The first *District Gazetteer of Champaran* edited by Mr. L. S. S. O'Malley, I.C.S., was published in 1907. Mr. R. E. Swanzy, I.C.S., revised the first edition of the *Champaran District Gazetteer* in 1932 and this was published in 1938. Mr. O'Malley acknowledged the great assistance he had received from the Champaran Survey and Settlement Report (1900) by Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moor, I.C.S. In his Preface to the second edition Mr. Swanzy mentioned that he had referred freely to the later Settlement Report of Mr. Swanzy which had been invaluable. The second edition was a book of 182 pages.

The State Government in the Revenue Department have undertaken the work of re-writing and publishing the District Gazetteers. The old District Gazetteers are not easily available. They were meant to be more an administrator's hand-book and were written from a particular angle. In the last three decades there have been very many basic changes in the district and the country. With Independence the very character of the State Government had changed. Although replete with facts and brilliantly written the previous series of Gazetteers had a limited objective and do not satisfy the present requirements.. There is also the need for the reappraisal of many of the previous features and data in the light of facts now made available and to incorporate the changes and the new features.

This re-written *District Gazetteer of Champaran* is my sixth publication in the new series. Our new District Gazetteers of Hazaribagh, Gaya, Muzaffarpur and Singhbhum had been re-written before the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, New Delhi, had taken up the work of publishing four Central Volumes of Gazetteers for India and to co-ordinate the series of the re-written District Gazetteers in the different States. In consultation with the State Editors the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs, New Delhi, had drawn up a general plan to be followed as far as possible by the States for the District Gazetteers. This scheme was followed in *Saran Gazetteer* published in early 1960 (fifth of our series). This pattern has also been followed for Champaran as far as possible. As a matter of fact, the *Champaran District Gazetteer* may have been published earlier but a lot of realignments had to be done to follow India's pattern.

The task of re-writing the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* had its own difficulties. There have been no Survey and Settlement Operations recently nor any economic survey. The Gazetteers of the neighbouring districts in other States are not published yet. The march of events since 1947 has been extremely rapid and some of the changes are quite basic. Owing to their preoccupations the help of the local officials was not always available.

I have, however, derived great help from some of the old English Correspondence Volumes in the Record Room of Motihari, published and unpublished documents in the National Archives, New Delhi, various published books, Government reports like District Census Hand-Book, 1951 and data supplied by collaborators and institutions. Extensive tours had to be undertaken. My previous researches regarding Gandhiji's movement in Champaran and my previous official assignments in Tirhut Division were very helpful.

A book of this type can only be compiled by the pooling of resources, observation, intensive study, research and personal contact. I am grateful for the great fellowship that I have had from various sources in this very responsible task. My first gratitude is to Dr. Rajendra Prasad, the first President of Indian Republic, who was a close associate of Mahatma Gandhi in his first struggle for independence in India which took place on the soil of Champaran district. Dr. Rajendra Prasad had spared me some of his valuable time for a detailed discussion and gave me a lot of information which has been incorporated in the book. I am also much indebted to Sri Binodanand Jha, Revenue Minister, and Sri Radha Govind Prasad, Deputy Minister, Revenue who have always helped me with their thoughtful suggestions whenever I have had occasions to approach them.

The authorities of the National Archives, New Delhi, National Library, Calcutta, Asiatic Society of Bengal, Calcutta and the Historical Archives, West Bengal Government, Calcutta, have, as before, ungrudgingly loaned me their rare books and documents and afforded me facilities for research in their Archives. Sri Adrish Banerji, Assistant Superintendent, Archæological Department, Mid Eastern Circle, Patna and some Roman Catholic Fathers have helped me with valuable contributions. For some of the photos I am thankful to Sri P. C. Singh of Bihar Civil Service. I am much obliged to Dr. S. B. Chaudhury, Editor, Gazetteers of the Central

Gazetteers' Unit and the District Magistrate of Champaran for a number of valuable suggestions on the texts. The Superintendent, Secretariat Press, Gulzarbagh and his staff have taken personal interest in the printing of the book. The team-work has been a pleasure.

An attempt has been made to provide an objective book of reference for a wider range of readers including politicians, researchers, writers, journalists, teachers, students, and, by no means, least, the interested man in the street. The work has been very exacting but I have thoroughly enjoyed it. It will be my privilege and I would be happy if the book provides some information and thought for further enquiries along with the five re-written Gazetteers published before.

PATNA :

The 10th May, 1960.

P. C. ROY CHAUDHURY.

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12. A stone reservoir for water chiselled out of a monolith on the top of Someswar hills. According to tradition Rasaguru, a local priest used this trough for moving out.

DISTRICT GAZETTEER OF CHAMPARAN.

CHAPTER I—GENERAL.

INTRODUCTORY.

ORIGIN OF NAME.

In Vishnu and certain other Puranas frequent references have been made of Champak-aranya (the forest of *Champa* trees) stretching along the Salgrami or Narayani river, which is another name of the Gandak. The area was the abode of the Hindu ascetics, removed from the wordly ambitions. There are a number of places in the district which commemorate many a great Hindu *rishis* of the epics.

It is now said that the name Champaran is a degenerate form of Champak-aranya, a name which, as stated above, dates back to the time when the district was a tract of the forest of *Champa* trees (*Michelia champaca*) and was the abode of solitary ascetics.

LOCATION, BOUNDARIES AND AREA.

The district of Champaran, which forms the extreme north-western portion of the Tirhut Division and of the State of Bihar, is situated between 26°-16′ and 27°-31′ north latitude, and between 83°-50′ and 85°-18′ east longitude. In Edward *Thornton's Gazetteer,* Vol. I (London, Wm. H. Allen and Co. 1854) the district is mentioned to be situated between 26°-16′—27°-30′ latitude and 83°-55′—85°-55—85°-21′ longitude. According to the census of 1951, the district extends over an area of 3,525 square miles and has a population of 25,15,343 (1951).

The district is bounded on the north and north-east by Nepal; on the south-east and south by the district of Muzaffarpur; on the south-west by Saran; and on the north-west by the Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh. To the north and north-east the boundary marches with the Nepalese *zilas* of Parsa and Bara; and here the frontier, where not naturally formed by rivers, is marked by ditches and masonry pillars, and for a considerable distance runs along the crest of the Sumeswar range. On the north-east the Uria, and on the south-east the Lal-Bakeya and Baghmati constitute natural boundaries and on the west, the district is separated from Gorakhpur and Saran by the present channel and an old bed of the Gandak.

Thornton's Gazetteer mentions "Champaran district is bounded on the north by Nepal State; east by Muzaffarpur district; south by Muzaffarpur and Saran districts; and west by Gorakhpur district, N. W. P. and by Nepal State". The boundaries given by Thornton do not appear to be quite correct now because of administrative changes.

It will be of interest to mention that the district of Champaran, even when it was a part of Sarkar Saran, had seemingly a much larger area under it than what it has at present. In the old correspondence from one letter no. 21, Saran, dated the 14th February 1842, from the Judge to G. D. Wilkins, Joint Magistrate of Champaran, it appears that there were eight thanas in the district and that the total area of all of them together was 4,139 square miles. This, however, was questioned by the Judge as the total area of the district was shown at 4,048 square miles in a statement. Another letter from Calcutta, dated the 18th January, 1842, from the Secretary of same Department to the Judge, Saran mentions about the statistics of area and population of Saran and Champaran. It was mentioned that the area of Saran Civil District was 7,918 square miles of which 3,870 was the area of Saran Magistracy. The Magistracy of Saran consisted of eleven thanas and three Munsifs and that of Champaran of eight thanas and three Munsifs. The Magistrate of Saran computed the area by multiplying medium length by medium breadth and Joint Magistrate of Champaran by multiplying extreme length by extreme breadth. The population of Saran was calculated by multiplying the number of houses by five and half and the result was about 170 persons per square mile while Champaran had returned about 110 persons per square mile, the figure being based on the reports of *Patwaries and Gomastahs.*

A table of statistics is attached with the letter which runs as follows :—

Comparative Statement of Munsif and Thanas,
Saran Civil District.

From Judge's revised Supplementary Table no. 5.			From revised list of Magistrate no. 3.		
Munsifs.	Area.	Population.	Thanas.	Area.	Population.
1	2	3	4	5	6
			Saran Magistracy.		
Chuprah ..	54	2,66,584	(1) Chuprah ..	120	1,05,973
			(2) Manjhi ..	220	50,215
			(3) Taujpore ..	280	1,10,396
			TOTAL ..	620	2,66,584

From Judge's revised Supplementary Table no. 5.			From revised list of Magistrate no. 3.		
Munsifs.	Area.	Population.	Thana.	Area.	Population.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Pursah ..	528	2,34,300	(4) Pursah ..	270	68,607
			(5) Kusmer ..	200	57,195
			(6) Tuttehpoor ..	270	76,125
			(7) Goldingganj ..	170	32,373
			TOTAL ..	910	2,34,300
Sewan ..	736	4,22,988	(8) Butterdah ..	270	85,717
			(9) Sewan ..	260	1,47,719
			(10) Daraoly ..	230	79,376
			(11) Barragong Hoosaypore.	230	1,10,176
			TOTAL ..	990	4,22,988
		Champaran Magistracy.			
Champaran or Bettiah.	2,208	4,47,208	(12) Motihari ..	468	63,813
			(13) Bettiah ..	832	98,541
			(14) Kullianpore ..	480	51,885
			(15) Govindgunj ..	294	51,540
			(16) Musowra ..	320	47,506
			(17) Dacca ..	384	62,595
			(18) Burijurea ..	562½	28,907
			(19) Birgah ..	703	42,421
			TOTAL ..	4,043½	4,71,208
	3,526	13,71,080		6,563½	13,71,080

SUBDIVISIONS AND THANAS.

The district has two subdivisions, namely, Sadar and Bettiah. The former with its headquarters at Motihari, which is also the district headquarters, has an area of 1,528 square miles and a population of 14,43,961 souls, according to the census of 1951. Bettiah subdivision has its headquarters at the town bearing the same name and extends over an area of 1,997 square miles with a population of 10,71,382 souls. The two subdivisional headquarters are also the principal towns of the district, of which Bettiah is more populous than Motihari and is also the chief trading centre of the district.

The whole district is divided into 9 revenue thanas and 25 police-stations. Of the total number of revenue thanas, 6 are in Sadar subdivision and the rest in Bettiah subdivision and that of the total number of police-stations, 13 are in Sadar and 12 in Bettiah. A table is given below showing the name, area and population of each revenue thana and police-station, according to the census of 1951 :—

Name.	Area in square miles.	Persons.	Population.	
			Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5
Sadar subdivision—				
Motihari (Revenue thana) ..	287	2,63,997	1,35,606	1,28,391
Motihari (police-station) ..	11	24,489	14,247	10,242
Motihari Mufassil (ditto) ..	211	1,72,567	86,845	85,722
Sugauli (ditto) ..	65	66,941	34,514	32,427
Adapur (Revenue thana) ..	226	2,28,151	1,16,930	1,11,221
Adapur (police-station) ..	111	1,11,469	56,839	54,630
Raxaul (ditto) ..	115	1,16,682	60,091	56,591
Dhaka (Revenue thana) ..	339	3,66,554	1,77,846	1,88,708
Dhaka (police-station ..	139	1,66,010	79,654	86,356
Ghorasahan (ditto) ..	85	85,125	42,005	43,120
Patahi (ditto) ..	115	1,15,419	56,187	59,232
Kesaria (Revenue thana) ..	268	2,39,072	1,17,405	1,21,667
Kesaria (police-station) ..	194	1,68,455	82,352	86,103
Pipra (ditto) ..	74	70,617	35,053	35,564

Name.	Area in square miles.	Persons.	Population.	
			Males.	Females,
1	2	3	4	5
Sadar Subdivision—*concld.*				
Madhubani (Revenue thana and police-station).	125	1,20,764	58,863	61,901
Gobindganj (Revenue thana) ..	283	2,25,423	1,13,395	1,12,028
Gobindganj (police-station) ..	134	1,06,399	53,509	52,890
Hasidih (ditto) ..	149	1,19,024	59,886	59,138
Bettiah subdivision—				
Bettiah (Revenue thana) ..	556	4,88,698	2,49,503	2,39,195
Bettiah (police-station) ..	29	53,827	27,646	26,181
Jogapatti (ditto) ..	86	68,993	35,590	33,403
Majhaulia (ditto) ..	101	92,022	46,744	45,278
Nautan (ditto) ..	160	1,25,980	63,697	62,283
Sikta (ditto) ..	63	65,779	33,261	32,518
Chanpatia (ditto) ..	117	82,097	42,565	39,532
Bagaha (Revenue thana) ..	699	2,61,741	1,34,985	1,26,756
Bagaha (police-station) ..	474	1,47,057	76,448	70,599
Dhanaha (ditto) ..	225	1,14,694	58,537	56,157
Shikarpur (Revenue thana) ..	742	3,20,943	1,62,873	1,58,070
Shikarpur (police-station) ..	315	1,46,105	74,242	71,863
Ramnagar (ditto) ..	258	60,347	30,952	29,395
Mainatanr (ditto) ..	98	43,743	21,294	22,449
Lauriya (ditto) ..	76	70,748	36,885	34,363

THE HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT AS AN ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT AND THE CHANGES IN THE COMPONENT PARTS.

Till 1837 Champaran did not have a separate entity as a district but formed a part of Sirkar Saran for all administrative purposes. In that year, however, the criminal jurisdiction of Champaran was separated and placed under a Joint Magistrate with headquarters at Motihari. This Joint Magistrate was also given the powers of a Deputy Collector for his jurisdiction. This arrangement appears to have continued till 1865-66. In 1866 the revenue jurisdiction of

Champaran was separated and it was given the status of a full-fledged district.

The district has two subdivisions, Bettiah with headquarters at Bettiah and Sadar with headquarters at Motihari. As regards the creation of the subdivision of Bettiah there appears to be some anomaly. Hunter's Statistical Account of Bengal (1875) mentions 1852 as the year of creation of Bettiah subdivision. The old *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938) has also mentioned the same year, probably on the basis of Hunter's version. But some of the documents which are in existence do not support the view that the Bettiah subdivision was created in 1852. In 1845 the subdivisional system was introduced for the first time in Lower Bengal for better administration. It appears that the subdivision of Bettiah also came into existence in this connection. But the subdivisional headquarters appears to have been withdrawn later. Letter no. 192, dated the 18th June 1860, from the Commissioner of Patna to Government of Bengal, mentions that by Government Order no. 635, dated the 9th April 1845, the selection of Bettiah as the headquarters of a subdivision bearing the same name was approved much to the chagrin of the Bettiah Rajah and a Deputy Magistrate was stationed there. The opposition, though passive, of Bettiah Rajah continued and by another Government Order in September, 1846, the Deputy Magistrate from Bettiah was recalled to Motihari. The same letter no. 192, dated the 1st June 1860, mentions that subsequently another Deputy Magistrate was appointed at Bettiah for some time but was later transferred to Sherghati (now in Gaya district) and no Subdivisional Magistrate appears to have been deputed to Bettiah till 1862. This letter does not, however, mention as to when another Deputy Magistrate was sent to Bettiah.

A proposal for the creation of a full-fledged subdivision at Bettiah was given by the Joint Magistrate of Champaran in 1860 to the Commissioner of Patna Division. In the concluding lines of his letter, he wrote :

" 10. Formerly there always used to be Deputy Magistrate at Bettiah, but he was removed (to Sherghotty I think) and no one was sent to supply his place.

" There is at present no accommodation at Bettiah. The last Deputy Magistrate's Bungalow was burnt (some say accidentally), but there is the foundation and part of the walls of a house in a very good situation, which would, if completed, make very good Residence and Cutcherry. This was intended to be an Industrial School or something of that sort, but when your immediate predecessor came to Patna the works were stopped. But the Rajah is unwilling to complete it, the Government might hire or buy the land and the house might be finished by the Executive Engineer.

" 11. I enclose a rough map of the district and of the parts which I propose to make the subdivision.

"With reference to the size of the proposed subdivision it is to be remembered that it does not contain probably 2,00,000 of 7,00,000 inhabitants of Champaran.

"12. As to Establishment, the smaller it is, the better. The Amlah would, to a certainty, coalesce with the Rajah's Amlah. I should propose :—

	Rs.
A Mohurrir on	15
A Mohurir on	10
1 Chupprassie	5
3 Chupprassies at Rs. 4 each	12
Total	42

"The Joint or Deputy Magistrate could write his own letters and be supplied with stationery from my office."*

The Commissioner of Patna while recommending this proposal for approval of Government discussed the previous history of Bettiah subdivision in his letter of 18th June, 1860, cited above, and observed : "The present position then is not to form a new subdivision but to appoint an officer to a subdivision sanctioned and established in 1845." Meanwhile Government had received several petitions from inhabitants of that part of Champaran complaining of oppressions practised upon them by the farmers of Bettiah Raj. The Collector's proposal was, therefore, sanctioned by Government under Judicial Department letter no. 91A, dated 8th January, 1861, to the address of Commissioner of Patna Division which runs as follows :—

"2. The Lieutenant-Governor has no objection to the immediate establishment of the subdivision of Bettiah as proposed by you. No permanent buildings, however, will be sanctioned until the general question of subdivisions for the Patna Commissionership has been settled. Meanwhile you can depute any available officer to take charge of the subdivision. If no suitable accommodation can be found there, the officer deputed to Bettiah can live in tents, and return to the Sudder station at the commencement of the hot weather. Mr. Lynch is probably available for this service."**

The new Subdivisional Officer, however, could not shift his residence to Bettiah till late in 1862, for a letter of the Commissioner of Patna, dated 12th June, 1862, says :

"There is only one subdivision at present, viz., that of Bettiah and the officer in charge of it does not reside or hold office there but at the Sudder station of Moteharry 30 miles distant owing to the absence of a Cutcherry or dwelling house at Bettiah."*

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* *Bengal Judicial Department Progs.* nos. 141—148 of January, 1861.

** *Ibid.*

Under the new subdivisional arrangements in Patna Division which were already under consideration of Government, two subdivisions, namely, Motihari and Bettiah, were sanctioned for Champaran under Judicial Department letter no. 1608, dated the 2nd March 1863.† The Sudder subdivision continued to be under the Magistrate's charge while Bettiah had its separate Subdivisional Officer. The new arrangements were notified on the 10th June, 1865 (published in *Calcutta Gazette* of 14th June 1865), after receipt of the Report of Boundary Commissioner.

The revenue jurisdiction of Champaran was separated from that of Saran in 1865-66 and the former got the status of a full-fledged district.

The Sudder Subdivision of Motihari appears to have continued to be under the direct charge of the Magistrate of Champaran till 1916 when in accordance with the recommendation of the Decentralisation Commission it was provided with a separate Subdivisional Officer.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Configuration.

In the old *District Gazetteer of Champaran* it has been mentioned: "In shape, Champaran roughly resembles an irregular parallelogram, extending along the eastern bank of the Gandak for 100 miles, and having a breadth of 20 miles at the northern and of 40 miles at the southern extremity. The general aspect of the greater part of the district is very similar to that of the rest of North Bihar, a flat cultivated expanse diversified by numerous large groves of mango trees and intersected by a number of rivers and streams debouching from Nepal. In the south and east the country is almost perfectly level with a very slight declination to the south; and the general character of the scenery is tame and monotonous. Towards the north and north-west the country begins to undulate and the alluvial plain gives place to a broken hilly region known as the Dun or Ramnagar Dun. This consists of a range of low hills, about 20 miles long, north of which the Sumeswar range extends for about 46 miles along the northern frontier. Below these hills extend southwards and eastwards large grassy prairies watered by numerous hill-streams, while in the background tower the Himalayas of Nepal in an imposing arc of eternal snow."

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* *Bengal Judicial Department Progs.* nos. 94—112 of March, 1863.

† *Bihar Appointment Department Progs.* nos. 99—118 of March, 1916.

There have not been substantial changes in recent years to necessitate a change in the above statement excepting that the district has not got now numerous mango groves. Many of the mango-topes were cut down and the fuel used up for domestic purposes and as fuel to the sugar mills whenever there was scarcity of coal which has to be imported into the district.

NATURAL DIVISIONS.

The district is divided into four distinct tracts. The first consists of the hilly tracts of Sumeswar and Dun ranges. They are to the extreme north of the district at the foot hills of Himalayas. These Dun and Sumeswar hills run with their foot hills some 15 miles into the alluvial plains. It is noticeable that the soil even at the foot of the hills has no rocky formation and wherever water can be impounded, rich growth of crop is possible. The hilly streams, however, play havoc by bringing down huge quantities of sand and destroying cultivable lands. The hills contain large stretches of jungles and forests. In fact with the exception of forests occurring in the Bettiah and Madhuban thanas the entire forest area of the district, which is 359 square miles, occurs on these hilly tracts. The finest timber of these tracts have long since been exploited on account of mismanagement of forest in the hands of the old Bettiah and Ramnagar estates. Since these forests have now vested in the State they are being scientifically maintained.

Next to the hilly area comes the sub-montane tract, known as Terai. This Terai region is supposed to be comparatively unhealthy and consists of mostly prairies and forest lands. The Tharus of the district reside in the scattered clearances of the area. Welfare measures taken by the State to improve the condition of this tract have attained some success.

The Terai region is followed by fertile plain occupying the rest of the district. This plain itself is divided into two well defined tracts by the little Gandak, and have markedly different characteristics. The northern portion of the area which is the third distinct tract of the district is composed of old alluvium and has a considerable area of lowland. It is traversed by a number of streams flowing southwards. The area is admirably suited for the cultivation of rice, but is unfit for the cultivation of *rabi* crops. The southern portion of the tract is composed of recent alluvium deposited during the oscillations of the Gandak while it shifted westward to its present channel. The area could be described as the fourth distinct tract and is characterised by stretches of upland varied in places by large marshy depressions known as *chaurs*. The soil is generally lighter and grows millets, pulses, cereals and oilseeds.

A remarkable physical feature of the Champaran district is a chain of 43 lakes in number running through the centre of the district. These lakes, of which the largest are at Lalsaraiya, Sugaon, Turkaulia, Motihari, Pipra, Siraha, Nawada and Tetaria, extend over an area of 139 square miles, and evidently mark an old bed of the Great Gandak. Their depth varies from 3 to 20 feet and the water, which is considered very unhealthy, never dries up. They contain a variety of fish but rather difficult to catch. It is said there are mostly deep bores in the lakes where fish conceal themselves whenever net is put in. These lakes are usually not inundated by the spill-water of the rivers.

There are also a number of swamps and marshes scattered over the district, of which one of the most remarkable is the one known as Bahas along the borders of *tappas* Bahas and Balthar. This is a genuine bog during the greater part of the year, and even in the hot weather the prudent way farer cautiously feels his way with a stick or bamboo across the treacherous ground.

There was a severe earthquake in 1934, a description of which will be found in the chapter Agriculture and Irrigation. This earthquake raised the level of some *chaurs* and as a result portions of a few *chaurs,* which used to hold water perennially, have now become fit for cultivation. In recent years there has also been an attempt to drain off water of some *chaurs* to make them fit for cultivation.

HILLS AND PLAINS.

In the old *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938) it has been mentioned "To the extreme north the Dun and Sumeswar hills extend over an area of about 364 square miles. The Sumeswar hills form a part of a long range, which, under different names, runs in practical continuity along the whole length of Nepal, the only breaks in the chain being caused by rivers seeking an outlet. It is the lowest and outermost of all the Himalayan ranges, immediately overlooking the plains of Hindustan; and at its base lies the swampy feverish Terai. The hills of this range are mainly composed of imperfectly compacted sand-stone, in which are imbedded rocks and pebbles of the same formation. Owing to this ill-formed sand-stone, the hills have been worn by the action of rainfall into a series of steep ravines and almost inaccessible summits; and bare steep crags rise from the midst of the luxuriant vegetation with which many of its slopes are clothed.

The average height of the range in this district is 1,500 feet, but the hills vary in altitude from a few hundred feet to 2,884 feet above sea level at Fort Sumeswar, which commands a superb view of the Himalayas. This peak overlooks the Mauri valley in Nepal and in the background stretches the main range of the Himalayas, hill succeeding hill and peak rising above peak until they culminate in the vast snowy range to the north. The great peaks of Dhaulagiri (26,826), Gosainthan (26,305), and Gourishankar are clearly visible; and the view is said to be, for extent, one of the finest obtainable from any place on the frontier line in British India.* The ascent lies along the Sumeswar pass up the bed of the Juri Pani stream amid romantic scenery; this pass was commanded by a hill fort during the Nepal War of 1814-15. About 200 feet below the summit a bungalow has been erected, as it was once hoped that the place might develop into a sanatorium for North Bihar. For this it is in many ways well adapted, as the temperature does not exceed 80 in the hot weather and there is a supply of pure water; but the place has the reputation of being unhealthy, except from December to May. At the eastern extremity of the range, where the Kudi river pierces it, is situated the Bhikhna Thori pass through which a British force successfully marched into Nepal in 1815; and the other principal passes are the Kapan and Harha also leading to Deoghat in that State."

"The only other hills in the district are the Dun hills, a range of low hills which extends for about 20 miles in a south-easterly direction from the north-west corner of the district, and has an average breadth of 4 to 5 miles. Between this and the Sumeswar range lies what is known as the Dun Valley, an elevated table land inhabited by aboriginal Tharus."**

The above statement still holds good.

Barring the hills of the north and the area skirting them, the entire district is occupied by the rich and fertile plain. The entire plain area is divided into two well defined northern and southern tracts by the river Little Gandak, each distinguishable from the other in the principal characteristics. The northern tract is composed of the old alluvium, whereas the southern is composed of recent alluvium. The plains of the district has also a number of lakes and marshes, a description of which has already been given above.

RIVER SYSTEM.

"The general line of drainage is first from north to south, and then from north-west to south-west, the latter being the predominant course of the rivers. To the west the Gandak flows along the whole length of the district except for a small strip of land, forming the Dhanaha police-station, which lies to the west of it adjoining Gorakhpur. To the north-east the Uria forms part of the boundary, while to the south-east the district is bounded throughout its length by the Lal Bakeya and Baghmati rivers. Besides these boundary rivers, there are a considerable number of rivers and streams of which the most important is the Little Gandak or Sikrahna. The whole of the country north of this river is watered by a number of tributaries flowing almost due south from Nepal or the Sumeswar range; to the south there are only two considerable streams, both sluggish and with tortuous channels, in which the water remains almost stagnant except during the rains."*

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* Now the Union of India.

** The Tharus are no longer recognised as aboriginals. They are now classed as the people of Backward Class. The Tharus have been discussed elsewhere.

The yearly rainfall of the district ranges from 50 to 60 inches. The nature of the country, as stated above, is partly plain and partly hilly. The average slope of the plain area varies from 4 to 5 feet and that of the hilly area, locally called Terai, varies from 6 to 15 feet per mile. The maximum precipitation in 24 hours ranges from 10 to 15 inches which causes the rivers and streams in this district to come in spate very suddenly, causing devastation and submersion of large tracts of arable land.

THE GREAT GANDAK.

The Gandak or Great Gandak is also known as Narayani or Salgrami owing to the presence in its bed a large number of black stone pebbles with a white bend round its middle which are venerated by the Hindus as *Narayan* or *Salgram*. Although there is no clear indication of its distant past, but it is generally believed that the Burhi Gandak was its original course and after centuries it has moved westward to its present course. This river has also been identified with the Kondochates of the Greek geographers and (according to Lassen, is the Sadanira or everflowing river of the epics.

The Gandak rises in the mountain basin of Nepal, which has been called, from time immemorial, the Sapt Gandaki or the country of the seven Gandaks, from the seven main streams which unite to form this river. Its catchment area up to Indo-Nepal border is 14,612 square miles. After passing through Deoghat hills, 30 miles north of the territory of the Indian Union, the united stream flows southwards in a succession of rapids and pools until it reaches the Sumeswar range near Tomaspur. Here the descent is very rapid and its course lies through a narrow gorge between high cliffs crowned with trees. The Gandak finally leaves the hills through a pass in the sand-stone range to the west of the Sumeswar hills, at Tribeni, where it is joined by the Panchnad and Sonaha, the name Tribeni being suggested by the confluence of the three streams.

It then flows in a south easterly direction separating the district from Gorakhpur up to Tengraghat, from whence up to Satterghat it forms the boundary between Saran and Champaran, and from thence up to Sonepur, where it outfalls into the Ganga, it forms the boundary between Muzaffarpur and Saran. A number of streams fall into it during its course through Champaran, such as Rohua, Manaur, and Bhabsa, a description of which will be found later. Several minor streams which rise in the south of the tract, known as Ramnagar Dun, pour their combined waters into the Gandak at Rajwatia near Bagaha.

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* *Champaran District Gazetteer* (1938).

At first a snow-fed torrent, the Gandak becomes much wider and its stream more equable in velocity after debouching into the plains at Tribeni; and boats come up thus far and take away cargoes of timber. Navigation, however, is difficult owing to the narrow and tortuous course of the river during the hot and cold season, and the impetuosity of its current during the rains; large boats rarely go beyond the shoals and rapids near Bagaha, but smaller crafts ply as far as Lehra Ghat in Nepal. South of the Bagaha it becomes a widespreading river, with sandy tracts being formed one year to be swept away the next. It is on record that the main stream was once diverted for over a mile in consequence of the obstruction caused by a boat laden with rice being sunk in its channel. In the rains the stream attains a breadth of two to three miles and even in the hot and cold weather it is a quarter of a mile broad. After its entry in the territory of the Indian Union, the Gandak first flows over a rocky bed between high banks bordered with forest, but it soon acquires the character of a deltaic river, its bed being raised considerably above the level of the surrounding country. The south of the district is consequently liable to inundation from the river overflowing its banks, but is now protected from its once disastrous floods by an embankment extending from near Bagaha to the southern extremity of Champaran.

It is unique among Bihar rivers as it has been deprived of all spill area for a distance of 100 miles from its outfall by the construction of marginal embankments on its either banks now maintained by the Government. On the Saran side the embankment is continuous and has closed up the off-takes of all the spill channels, viz., the Gandaki, the Dhanai, etc., which used to irrigate and to build up the northern part of Saran district. On the Champaran and Muzaffarpur side the embankment has been breached several times and again restored. In Champaran itself the embankment has been breached at several places and retired lines have been constructed to encircle these gaps. Any gap caused by the breach of embankment is quickly closed by constructing a retired line or by restoring the embankment itself.

Along the left bank of Gandak there originally existed from Ratwal up to the southern border of Champaran an embankment known as Champaran Embankment. This was the gift of the local authorities and is now known as Gandak embankment. This embankment was breached at places in course of time and at present its total length, including the breached portions, comes to 83.5 miles. The bank was breached at Bathna, Majharia and Huseni. At Bathna the gap was about two miles and the spill through this gap used to go about two miles east and flow back into the main stream through the Ojhwalla Nala and the sluice provided in the embankment near Mangalpur. The Majharia gap occurred in the 48th mile and extended over three and a half miles. A very small percentage of the spill used to pass through this gap and combine with the

Reghua spill in the low *chaur* areas under Gobindganj and Kesariya police-stations. The Huseni gap was about two and a half miles and its spill water used to flow south of Kesariya through several *chaurs* and ultimately meet the Reghua which is called Baya after its confluence with the Samohti. These gaps no longer exist and whenever any fresh gap occurs that is put in order immediately by the Construction Division of the Irrigation Department.

As stated above, there are a number of tributaries to the Gandak. A brief description of the important streams meeting the Gandak in Champaran is given below.

The main tributaries of the Gandak are the Bhabsa Nadi, the Harha Nadi and the Bara Haraha.

The Bhabsa Nadi rises in the low hills, ten miles south of Tribeni, and after a circuitous route in the hills, where it is joined by many minor streams, flows in the south-westerly direction and crosses Tribeni canal at Amahat in the 14th mile, from whence it flows in the south-easterly direction and finally forms a confluence with the Gandak at Pathkauli.

The Harha Nadi is a combined stream of several minor streams, namely, the Jhegersi (which is called Baghi further down), the Jhakauri, the Kosi, the Garghai, the Gobrahi, etc., all rising in the hills. They join one another after crossing the Ramnagar-Santpur Road and the Tribeni canal. The combination of the Garghai and the Gobrahi is called Harha Nadi, which is later joined by the Jhegersi, the Jharkauri and the Kosi at Pipra Dharauli, from whence the Harha flows in the south-easterly direction crosses the Sugauli-Bagaha railway line at Pokharbhinda through a bridge (5′ × 40′) and finally falls into the Gandak at Rajwatia about three miles south-east of Bagaha.

The Bara Harha is a high level spill channel of the Gandak itself, which, after its off-take near the village Bherihari, is fed by the river Tengrahi and also receives water from the Bargaon branch distributary at Bisambharpur, and, after leading an extremely tortuous course of about 43 miles, again falls into the Gandak at Chaumukha. At several places cross bunds are put on this river either for irrigation or for fishing purposes which are not completely removed before the flood season. Five miles above its outfall it follows the course of a dead streamlet of the river Gandak and inundates the surrounding country badly along with the spill water of the Gandak.

It is interesting to mention that the Gandak has also an abandoned channel known as the Dhanauti, which originally was its spill channel with the off-take at Bairia. The Dhanauti ceased to flow, as its off-take was silted up for a few miles, and is now an extremely sluggish drainage channel, full of loops in which drainage water practically stagnates till it falls into the Sikrahna at Pakridayal. The existence of several *Mans* or lakes in the vicinity of the Dhanauti provides a good ground for the belief that during the course of westerly swing of the Great Gandak from its old course the Dhanauti used to function as an important channel.

An investigation was made for the improvement of the Dhanauti by reducing certain amount of Sikrahna spill into it through Khairwa bridge west of Motihari. It was, however, found that the scheme was not feasible owing to the insufficient fall in the bed, the length of Sikrahna being 45 miles against the tortuous length of the Dhanauti of 98 miles. The attempt was made with a view to improve the hygienic condition of the area falling on the banks of the Dhanauti, which was reported to be very unhealthy. It was also reported that a tract of the country to the west of Motihari was sparsely populated on account of this. However, the area is no longer reported to be unhealthy, although it is still sparsely populated.

It may also be of some interest to mention here about the towns situated at the banks of the Gandak. There may be said to be two townships so situated, namely, Tribeni and Bagaha, although the former is not reckoned as a town in the census of 1951. Tribeni is the headworks of a canal bearing the same name and its scenery at the headworks is fascinating. Bagaha is an important growing township and is also reckoned as such in the census of 1951 with a population of 5,820. Bagaha controls a large turnover of timber trade due to its proximity to the Terai and being close to the forests of Champaran district. It is situated in the north-western extremity of the district and was formerly connected with the Gorakhpur district by a bridge at Chhitaunighat. The bridge collapsed in 1924 and has not been replaced since. A temporary pontoon bridge is fixed up by the Bagaha Sugar Mill every year now for the transport of sugarcane to the mill.

THE LITTLE GANDAK OR SIKRAHNA.

In the district of Champaran the Little Gandak is the largest river next to the Gandak. Earlier it was believed to take its rise in the western extremity of the Sumeswar range and has been mentioned as such in the old District Gazetteer of 1938. But actually it rises from the Chautarwa *chaur,* which, in its turn, is fed by a number of hilly streams such as Manguraha, Sakti, Haraha, etc. It is rather a continuation of the river Manguraha, which gets a perennial supply of the sub-soil water percolating from its bed.

The Little Gandak flows through the centre of the district from north-west to south-east till it enters the Muzaffarpur district at Semra village. In the northern portion of its course it is known as the Sikrahna and in the southern portion as the Burhi Gandak. It has frequently changed its course, its oscillation from side to side being facilitated by its banks being composed of sandy friable soil.

During the first portion of its course, until it turns, southwards at Lakhaura, north of Motihari, it is joined by a number of hill-streams which make it an impetuous torrent in the rains, when it rises with great rapidity and sometimes overflows its banks causing serious inundation. From the records of the different years it appears that the flood slope varies from 1.05 feet to 1.27 feet per mile up to Lalbegiaghat, from where up to the district boundary, a distance of 48 miles, the slope is only 5.2 inches per mile. A table is given as Appendix 'D' of this chapter which indicates the maximum high level flood discharge for different years. It is navigable for a portion of its course towards the south by boats of small burden. The minimum width of the river between banks is 260 feet and the maximum is 975 feet, the mean being 533 feet. The low water mean depth is 4.87 feet but the least depth is 2.2 feet, whereas the greatest depth is 18.10 feet.

The catchment area of the river, which is partly hilly and partly plain, falls in Nepal as well as in Champaran. The catchment area in Nepal up to Indo-Nepal border is 961 square miles, and 211 square miles in Champaran. Most of the tributaries of the Sikrahna are hill torrents, a description of which is given below, and they all have sudden floods. When there is simultaneous rainfall in the catchment area of all the tributaries, the Sikrahna also goes in flood. In order to take precautionary measures and to know the nature of food in Burhi Gandak telegrams of heavy rainfall above 3 inches at Bhainsalotan (Tribeni), Ramnagar, Bettiah, Raxaul, Kathmandu and Motihari are sent to the Superintending Engineer, North Bihar Circle at Muzaffarpur.

The bank erosion in the Sikrahna is like that of other rivers flowing through the alluvial soil. It is eroding one bank and silting up the other, the tendency being more apparent where a loop is forming. The inner side of the loop is silted up and the outer side is eroded until the loop attains almost a circular shape. The river is eroding the right bank up stream approaches of the Chainpatia and Sugauli bridges.

During its course through the Champaran district the Sikrahna is fed by a number of hill torrents, namely, the Masan, the Belor, the Pandai, the Uria, the Tilaway, the Teur and the Kouhara. A brief description of each of them is given below.

The Masan at its place of origin is known as the Harha. It takes its rise in the Sumeswar range, close to Fort Sumeswar, and flows in the southern direction until it turns to the east near Barbiro. In its upper reaches it is joined by some tributaries, namely, the Saktiani Khola, the Dhair Khola, the Khudi river and the Kapan river. The Masan joins the Sikrahna at Basantpur after crossing the Raxaul-Bagaha section of the North Eastern Railway embankment through a bridge having eight vents of 60 feet each. It is famous for its turbulance, causing heavy erosion along its banks, and, when in flood, it brings in sand to the fields on its banks and deprives them of their fertility. The influence of this system exists from the western extremity of the Sumeswar range up to 80° 30′ east longitude of this range. The Masan alone is reported to be responsible for almost 30 per cent of Sikrahna discharge.

The Belor is a hilly stream formed by the unification of four hilly torrents, namely, the Ramrekha, the Belor, the Dhongai and the Harbora. It meets Sikrahna at Matiriaghat after passing through a railway bridge of seven vents of 40 feet each of the Narkatiaganj-Bagaha railway section. It is liable to come in spate very suddenly, causing inundation in the area it passes through.

The Pandai takes its rise in the Nepal territory north of Sumeswar range and enters into the district of Champaran through a pass between Sumeswar range and Churiaghat at Bhikhna Thori, from whence it flows in the southern direction and after crossing the Bagaha-Narkatiaganj railway line west of Gokhula railway station, it is joined at Tirmohanighat by another hill stream, the Kartaha, which is also called Maniari. The combined channel flows southwards and meets Sikrahna at Tulaghat. It is joined by several rivulets arising from the Sumeswar range before it is joined by the Maniari. It is also famous for its swift current and is reported to have damaged the Thori Bazar close to Bhikhna Thori railway station.

The Uria flows due south from Nepal, separates the district from Nepal for 12 miles and then flows southwards through the district for 14 miles and falls into the Sikrahna near Piparpantighat. Before its fall into the Sikrahna it is joined by the Sikta, the Kangali and the Gadh. It at times brings down heavy discharge of water.

The Tilway, which is a hilly stream, rises in Nepal, enters the district four miles west of Raxaul railway station and flowing southwards up to Ramgarhwa it takes south-easterly turn after crossing the Sugauli-Raxaul railway line. In its lower reaches it is joined by the Sariswa, the Bangari and the Pasaha streams and falls into the Sikrahna at Ajgarwa, which is two miles west of Barnawaghat.

The Tiur is the last important tributary of the Sikrahna, which crosses the railway line between Chauradano and Ghorasahan railway stations and carries a considerable discharge. It falls into the Sikrahna at about a mile east of Barnawaghat. A table is given as Appendix 'D' of this chapter which shows the maximum flood level discharge of different rivers. It has a canal of the same name, which will be described in the chapter "Agriculture and Irrigation".

The Kinhara is not any stream but a drainage channel, being the continuation of the Jharahi, for the Bettiah area. It falls into the Sikrahna near Gudderghat. It also works as a back spill channel of the Sikrahna when it is in flood and inundates the Bettiah area.

It may be mentioned here that the Sikrahna has a continuous chain of old and abandoned channels, namely, Chatnaha, Kachua Nala or Bakeya Nala, Hardia Nala and Babua Nala or Puraini Dhar, the last named is said to be once the course of the Baghmati. The earthquake of 1934 upheaved the bed of these channels. Now they are neither effective as spill channels nor as drainage channels and the result is the submersion of large area under four to five feet of water during the rains. However, occasionally they collect the drainage of Dhaka, Patahi, Nawada and Madhuban area and eventually pass on to Muzaffarpur district. There was also a live and vigorous spill channel of the Sikrahna at village Singhasani which was called Singhasani Nala. In 1938 it was observed that this spill channel was being gradually invigorated with a definite tendency of the river to divert through it on account of the gradual silting up of four of the nine vents of 80 feet each of the Sikrahna bridge number five at Sugauli. This had resulted in the formation of a shoal in front of the vents, which not only obstructed the flood flow but contracted the water section by yearly deposits of silt so much so that in 1938 only 36 per cent of the total discharge crossing the railway embankment between Sugauli and Ramgarhwa stations could pass through the main Sikrahna bridge. But now this Singhasani Nala is a dead channel. No shoal formation at the Sugauli bridge takes place and whatever was earlier formed has been washed away by the river itself. The river now flows through its natural channel. However, it has been noticed that the river is now forming shoal at Chainpatia railway bridge and is reported to have already silted up three vents of 100 feet each there. It is feared that if no action is taken to remove the silt the river may form a diversion channel.

Earlier there were three embankments on the Sikrahna. The first was Piparpanti-Singhasani bund along the left bank from about Singhasani up to Sugauli-Ramgarwa railway embankment to protect the left bank area. The embankment is now totally ineffective and has been allowed to remain so. The second embankment was Thikaha-Barkagaon bund opposite to Madhubanighat to check the left bank spill damaging Pakridayal area. It has been breached at several places and has not been restored. The third was Manpura bund opposite to Narhar-Pakrighat. This has also been breached at several places and has not been restored. A portion of the river has now been provided with embankments on both sides right from the south-eastern border of the district up to the outfall of Dhanauti on the right side and that on the left side up to Sijua Nala. The total length of embankment in Champaran district on the right side is about 41 miles and that on the left side about 31 miles. In fact these embankments are a continuation of the embankments that start from the Khagaria railway station in the Monghyr district. There is also a proposal to put embankments on both banks of the river in the remaining portion in Champaran.

It may also be of interest to note that there are three towns at the bank of the Sikrahna, namely, Chainpatia Bazar, Sugauli and Mehsi but the last named is not recorded as town in the census of 1951. Chainpura Bazar is an important grain market in north-west Champaran and according to the census of 1951 has a population of 5,100. Sugauli is an important railway junction of the North-Eastern Railway for the branch line of Raxaul and Nepal and a sugar mill is also situated there. It has a population of 9,106 souls, according to the census of 1951. Mehsi is a very old town and had an indigo factory in the past. It has now several button factories. The river Sikrahna brings a huge quantity of oyster shells and the shells are utilised for making buttons.

Lal Bakeya.

The river Lal Bakeya is a hilly stream and takes its rise in the foot-hills of Nepal. It forms the eastern boundary between Champaran and Muzaffarpur and meets the Great Baghmati at Khori Pakar. It occasionally comes in high flood and sometimes causes damage to the down stream apron of the weir and threatens the North-Eastern Railway bridge. Its right bank is protected by a marginal embankment extending up to Nepal border, but the left bank spill water extends up to Bairagnia where it is joined by the spill of Baghmati and the joint spill inundates several villages in the district of Champaran as well as of Muzaffarpur. At Goabari, about one mile south of the Nepal border, the headworks of Dhaka canal is situated on this river, an account of which will be found in the chapter " Agriculture and Irrigation ".

Baghmati.

The river Baghmati rises in the inner valleys in Nepal hills near Kathmandu and is a snow fed river. It enters into the territory of the Indian Union near village Rasulpur. Very little is known about the catchment area of the river in Nepal, but it is definite that the catchment area is very steep there as the river comes in spate very suddenly with short duration like torrential rivers, the current being sometimes 7 miles an hour in its upper reaches during heavy freshets. The river runs low during the cold season and also when no rain has fallen, but after a few days' rain its spill water combined with the spill water of Lal Bakeya inundates some portions of Champaran as well as of Muzaffarpur. In the Indian Union the nature of the catchment is fairly plain. The river after forming the boundary of the district of Champaran from Khori Pakar to Suga Pipar enters in the Muzaffarpur district. In this portion of its course the river is navigable by boats of 15 to 18 tons burden as far as Maniarighat. Its principal tributary is the Lal Bakeya which joins it at Khori Pakarghat. On account of many reasons the river has changed its course several times. It being a hilly stream, carries an enormous amount of silt in suspension and as is usual with such rivers, the major portion of the silt gets deposited on the banks forming a ridge close to the river, which consequently restrict the spill discharge and call upon the reduced channel section to cope with this heavy discharge. Due to this and other natural causes as well as due to obstructions created by the human agency such as construction of roads, embankments, etc., and also because of the nature of the soil along its banks being very light and friable, the river has changed its course several times.

Lalbegi.

Besides the rivers already mentioned above, the only other river of some importance is the Lalbegi which flows into the Gandak to the north of Gobindganj.

Minor Streams.

There are several other minor streams or rivulets flowing in the district which join with one or the other big rivers of the district already mentioned above. These rivulets are so minor in importance that they hardly require any separate mention.

Lakes and Tanks.

The *District Gazetteers of Champaran,* published by both L. S. S. O'Malley in 1907 and R. E. Swanzy in 1938, have the following to indicate the importance of lakes and marshes in the district :—

> "A remarkable physical feature of Champaran is a chain of lakes, 43 in number, running through the centre of the district. These lakes, of which the largest one at Lalsaraiya, Sugaon, Turkaulia, Motihari, Pipra, Siraha, Nawada and Tetaria, extend over an area of 139 square miles, and evidently mark an old bed of the Great Gandak. Their depth varies from 3 to 20 feet, and the water, which is considered very unhealthy, never entirely dries up. They contain a number of fish; and indigo factories are built on the banks of the greater number of them.
>
> There are also a number of swamps and marshes scattered over the district, of which one of the most remarkable is the one known as Bahas along the borders of *tappas* Bahas and Balthar. This is a genuine bog during the greater part of the year, and even in the hot weather the prudent wayfarer cautiously feels his way with a stick or bamboo across the treacherous ground. This unpromising marsh, however, produces fine crops of rice, the seed being sown broadcast from canoes."

The above statement still holds good, excepting the fact that there are no longer any indigo factories existing anywhere in the district. There are schemes to clear up and dig deeper some of the lakes and marshes for hygienic fish culturing and irrigational purposes. No tanks are being excavated now.

Underground Water Resources.

Champaran has got sufficient supply of underground water which is evident from the fact that the drinking water for urban areas is supplied by tapping water from underground resources by boring deep wells and not from rivers or lakes.

GEOLOGY.

"The Dun and Sumeswar hills in the extreme north which are a continuation of the Siwalik range are formed of ill-compacted sand-stone, scored by the bare stony beds of the water-courses down which the streams rush with considerable force in the rains. Probably these Himalayan foot-hills were originally anti-clinal, the southern half of the anti-cline having disappeared, as there are no fossils in the strata. On the lower slopes of the hills the gravel beds are covered with forest in which *sal* predominates. In the lower ground at the foot of the hills which is called the Terai the ground is more marshy and high grass replaces the forest. The remainder of the district is an alluvial plain, a large portion of which has been formed by the Great Gandak, the river which now forms the south-west boundary of the district but which formerly flowed through the centre. The whole of the tract between the old course of the river and the present channel has been subject to fluvial action within comparatively recent times, and the soil is the older alluvion which is a characteristic feature of the Gangetic plain. There are beds of *kankar* in parts of the district and saltpetre is found almost everywhere."*

Our knowledge of geological formation of the district may be supplemented by a note dated the 12th March, 1959, from the Department of Geology, Patna University, which runs as follows:—

"The greater part of the district is covered by alluvium deposited by the numerous tributaries of the Ganga. The alluvium together with silt and sand fills up a great depression which forms a hidden trough all along the plains of the Ganga from the west to the east in northern India. This trough came into existence during the elevation of the Himalaya Mountain by the sagging of the frontal position of the Peninsula when the advancing mountain waves of strata pressed against the latter. It is presumed that the bottom of this trough which is deeper towards the north is covered by the Nummulitics—a lower Tertiary formation and other lower Tertiary deposits as it must have been filled by a sea. It is likely to contain also oil-bearing strata.

The northern fringe of the district is marked by the Sumeswar Range which is a continuation of the Siwalik Range of the western Himalaya. This range is largely made up of sand-stones and conglomerate or grit beds of Middle and Upper Tertiary age. There is a lower range of hills known as the Dun Hills separated from the former by a *dun,* known as the Ramnagar *dun.* The strata of the Sumeswar Range and of the Dun range of hills are thrust against the younger deposits further south by a series of faults which are known in Indian Geology as the main boundary fault. The bulk of the strata of the Sumeswar Range probably correspond to the Nahans of the Punjab Himalaya."

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* *District Gazetter of Champaran* (1938).

A proper soil survey of the district has not yet been done which can help in specifying nature, origin and distribution of parent rock material from which the soil has been derived. The soils are generally loam, yet in different parts soils are found which may be very loose sands, very hard clay or even reddish loam. Clay soils are found in limited areas near Gobindganj and Kesariya. The soils on the average show 0.05 per cent of nitrogen, 0.007 P_2 05, 0.02 per cent K 20 and 6.0—8.8 PH, the maximum nitrogen being 0.086 per cent and the minimum being 0.04 per cent.

The sub-soil in the alluvial plain has sandy deposit in various depths at different places of the district. Therefore, though masonry buildings of one or two storeys can safely be constructed with ordinary foundation, but heavy structures, such as bridges over rivers, are difficult to construct.

The note from the Department of Geology, Patna University, adds regarding the soil formation of the district that "The soils of the foot-hill zone are primary immature soils containing a good proportion of the undecomposed mineral grains. The slopes of gravel and shingle along the foot of the hills covered with thick forests of *sal* are known as *bhaban.* Many parts of the district are characterised by saline and alkaline efflorescence known locally as *reh* or *kallar.* In North Bihar particularly saltpetre is termed by the action of nitrifying bacteria excreta of cattle in the soil on a widespread scale".

*EARTHQUAKE.

An earthquake is defined as a vibration caused by the passage, through the earth, of elastic waves set up by a sudden disturbance of the crust. Earthquakes are of two types, viz., volcanic and tectonic, the latter being more destructive than the former and affects a wide area. All the Indian earthquakes are of tectonic origin. The North Bihar Earthquake of 1934 which affected Champaran so severely, probably ranks equally with any recorded earthquake in history, both in intensity and in real damage.

Severe earthquakes are caused by a sudden fracture of a portion of the earth crust or by relative movement along some old fault place. The faults are of two main types, namely, normal or tensional fault and reversed or thrust fault. A normal fault may arise when tension within a portion of the crust exceeds the elastic limits of a rock; the crust along one side of the fault sinks, relatively to the other side, as a result of gravity. Reversed faults arise where the crust is under horizontal compression; rocks above the fault are pushed bodily over those below or the underlying rocks are thrust under those above the fault. Under a normal fault the vertical displacement may vary from less than an inch to several thousands of feet, but the horizontal displacement is usually small. Under a reversed fault the horizontal displacement in some cases can be measured in tens of miles, but the vertical displacement may be comparatively small. Along the foot of Himalaya a series of reversed faults parallel to the trend of the mountains, separating the older rocks from the younger and from the area now covered by the Indo-Gangetic alluvium, is present.

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* Based on a study of the *Preliminary Report on the North Bihar Earthquake of the 15th January* 1934 by J. A. Dunn, J. B. Auden and A. M. N. Ghosh.

There are two hypothesis, that is, overloading and underloading of Gangetic plains and both of them postulate a movement of the earth's crust over North Bihar in a north-south direction and the transfer of materials one way or the other. Any disturbing factor in the equilibrium of the crust in this zone may precipitate an earthquake.

It is known from the geodetic work of the Survey of India that a region of great underload exists in North Bihar, corresponding to a deficit of 5,000 feet of rock of density 2.67. Motihari lies near the centre of maximum underload. This underload arises from the abnormally low densities in the crust and is partly to be accounted for by the low density of the alluvium of the Ganges valley. The area of underload is flanked to north and south by the regions of overload in the Himalaya and in the Peninsular India. Such variations in loading must cause great stress differences, and it is remarkable that the Zone of maximum destruction in the North Bihar Earthquake of 1934 corresponded approximately to that of the area of greatest underload.

It has been stressed that the border of the Gangetic alluvium along the Himalaya is a seismic region and earthquakes could be expected along this belt in future also. But the timing of severe earthquakes, as one could expect by the earthquakes of 1833 and 1934, is impossible to predict.

The isoseismal map of the Bihar Earthquake of 1934 also indicates that Champaran district is one of the places in North Bihar liable to severe earthquakes. Although only a small part of the district, namely, the eastern portion of Dhaka thana, falls under the epicentral tract, but probably the whole of Motihari, Gobindganj, Kesariya, Madhuban, Sugauli and a portion of Ghorasahan thanas fall within the slump belt. This slump belt extends up to Purnea through a stretch of land some 10 to 20 miles in width. Besides, the northern most isoseismal line passes through Raxaul, Bettiah and other parts of the district west of Motihari.

The report of Messrs. Dunn, Auden and Ghosh put forward certain recommendations, based on their observations, regarding the reconstruction of buildings. They advised that in North Bihar heavy buildings should not be constructed until the dry season of 1934-35 was well advanced, since the alluvial soil was liable to subside irregularly for some months, even in places which exhibited no visible danger signs. The buildings should not be constructed near depressions like lakes, rivers, etc. Buildings should be given strong foundations and proper bracing. They should be of sound materials, one storeyed and as light at the top as possible. In the belt of maximum intensity use of steel or timber framed structures was recommended. Masonry arched bridges and culverts should be avoided and screw pile bridges adopted wherever possible. Buildings of irregular shape with wings, protruding verandahs, porches, etc., should be avoided.

Rebuilding of Government headquarters at Motihari presented a special problem. The old town lay on the banks of the lakes and the fissuring and subsidence of the soil had been extreme. Only a few islands of apparently sound soil could be found and the real stability of these areas was a matter of grave doubt. After an enquiry by the Chief Engineer it was found that Government buildings could not be constructed at Motihari and hence a piece of high land at Lautaha at a distance of 3½ miles, relatively free from fissures, was selected to construct Government buildings. It is the present site where all the Government buildings are now concentrated.

Since the engineering knowledge has advanced during recent years, it is not an unusual sight to find big buildings being constructed even by the side of depressions.

A detailed description of damages caused in the district of Champaran by the earthquake of 1934 has been given elsewhere.

VEGETATION.

In the last District Gazetteer it was observed "Botanically Champaran may be divided into several distinct areas. To the north are the Sumeswar and Dun ranges covered with forest and scrub wood, and next comes a narrow, more or less sloping gravelly sub-montane tract covered, except along river beds, with forest, the constituent species of which are those that occur on the lower slopes of the mountains themselves. In existing river beds only a few tough flexible bushes occur; along abandoned shingly river courses the jungle is open and park-like, and the species are those characteristic of a drier climate than obtains in the forest along side. The sub-montane forest is succeeded by a belt of swampy land of varying width, covered with long reedy grasses. Further out into the plain the ground, if so high as to be free from inundation, is in waste tracts usually covered with open jungle of a bushy character."

"Nearly the whole of the rest of the district is under cultivation, and is bare or diversified with bamboos, palms, and orchards of mangoes, or less often groves of other trees. The tracts liable to inundation are mainly confined to the banks of the larger rivers, and are there often covered with a jungle of reeds and bushes, largely tarmarisk, with a few trees. To the south, however, the river courses widen considerably in proportion to their strems, and their beds contain little or no vegetation. The powerful current in the rains sweeps everything away; the shingly or sandy banks are at other seasons too dry to admit of much growth. But old river beds, marshes, lakes and such streams as are stagnant, or nearly so except after heavy rains, have a mass of vegetation while even small rivers with a gentle stream abound with water plants.

"The belt of forest along the northern border of the district contains *sal* (Shorea robusta), *sisu* (Dalbergia sissoo) and *tun* (Cedrela toona), the red cotton tree (Bombax malabaricum) and *khair* (Acacia catechu) are also common. Bamboos thrive in the moist Terai tract, *sabai* grass (Ischoemum angustifolium) and the *narkat* reed (Amphadonax falcata) are also valuable products and extensive thickets of tamarisk line the Gandak river. In the south cultivation is closer, and the crops leave room for little besides weeds, grasses and sedges, chiefly species of Panicum and Cyperus, though on patches of waste land thickets of *sisu* very rapidly appear. The sluggish streams and lakes are filled with water weeds, the sides being often fringed by reedy grasses, bulrushes and tamarisk. Near villages, small shrubberies may be found containing mango, *sisu, Eugenia jambolana,* various species of Ficus and occasional tamarind, and a few other semi-spontaneous and more or less useful species. Both the palmyra (*Borassus flabellifer*) and date palm (*Phoenix sylvestris*) occur planted and at times self-sown but neither in great abundance."

There are many kinds of mushrooms. Scores of them are of fungus nature. There are also mosses of different families, particularly two, the family of Bryacacedoe (the feather mosses) and Phasaceoe (earth mosses). A more detailed description of vegetation will be found under the sub-head 'Forests'.

FORESTS.

History.

Only about 50 years back the forest area in the district as stated in the old District Gazetteer of 1907 was 427 square miles. The forest area has been stated to be about 392 square miles in the District Gazetteer of 1938, and now the area is reported to be 359 square miles. From the detached mound of the village Lauriya an extensive view over the well-wooded country on every side could be had 50 years ago, but now one can have such a view only from Gaunaha, a distance of 20 miles north of Lauriya and that too only towards the northern side.

This indicates the extent of denudation which the forests of Champaran has suffered during the last half a century. During this period the forests were mostly under the management of the Ex-Ramnagar Raj and the Ex-Bettiah Raj. Major portion of the forests of these two estates fell in the unsurveyed tract and even *raiyati* settlements over wellwooded and unsurveyed forests were made by the Ex-Ramnagar Raj indiscriminately, particularly after 1946 when the proposal for the abolition of Zamindari was being considered. With the increase of the demand of land for sugarcane cultivation a great destruction of the forests occurred. Mismanagement of forests in the hands of the two ex-estates of Ramnagar and Bettiah has also been one of the reasons for the denudation of forests. A description of the forests under the erstwhile estates is given below.

Ex-Bettiah Estate Forest.—A scheme for the management of forests under the Ex-Bettiah Raj was prepared as early as in 1903 by Mr. H. H. Haines, I.F.S. However, this was not adhered to and more trees of *sals* were felled than prescribed. The entire *khair* area was worked out within five years and no tree was available for several years for the manufacture of *kath* (catechu). The following extract from Mr. Sabharwal's working plan of 1931-32 to 1945-46 (paragraph 25) is given to show the extent of felling.

"The average annual number of trees felled between 1914-15 and 1918-19 was 3,201 and between 1919-20 to 1929-30, 4,343, while for four years during the latter period the number of trees felled annually exceeded even 6,000 against 1,174 prescribed by Mr. Hains."

Mr. Sabharwal also cautioned against the over exploitation of the forests, especially to retain sound *sal* trees of five and over in girth. This also was not adhered to and the Forest Officer of the Ex-Bettiah Estate in 1950-51 fixed the main felling of *sal* trees of 5 feet and over in girth to 2,000 without safeguarding future yield and improving the ground stock which resulted in felling all available *sal* trees of 5 feet and over in girth and created large blanks.

On the basis of the preliminary report of the Working Plans Officer, Northern Circle, the annual yield of *sal* trees for the Ex-Bettiah Estate forest was fixed at 1,600 trees.

Ramnagar Estate Forest.—This was never put to any selective felling of trees on scientific basis. The forests were leased out to many European Companies for many years, of which Messrs. Dearr & Co., enjoyed the longest term of lease, that is, from 1890 to 1922 and again from 1937 for a period of five years. Under the former lease this Company had an agreement to mark off for felling 5,000 *sal* trees of 4½ feet and over in girth annually. This was too high and the forest was over exploited and that also only in easily accessible areas. When the first lease expired in 1922 the then proprietress of the estate Rani Chatra Kumari Devi did not lease it out till 1935, which resulted into the recuperation and development of the forests. Even during this period some destruction to the forest was caused on account of a civil suit in the family itself between the Rani and Ram Raja. But when in 1936 the estate passed into the hands of the latter, the forest was again leased out in 1937 to Messrs. Dearr & Co., for five years.

There had been a suit between the Raja and his sons for asserting control over money yielding forests, which resulted into indiscriminate destruction of the forest. But in 1942 an understanding took place between the parties and the forests west of Gobardhana were given to exploit only dry trees and drift and waif wood.

In 1943 the Nepal Timber Co. was given a contract which started work on the border of Ramnagar and Bettiah estate forests in the Bhabsa river. This company worked till 1947.

With a view to exploit as much money from forests as possible and to clear forests of the plains for settling with tenants on payment of *salami,* a heavy felling was resorted to by the Ex-Ramnagar Raj after 1946, when the Bihar Private Forests Act was being enacted.

The mismanagement of forests, as stated above, in the private hands led the Government of Bihar to create North Bihar Forest Division with effect from the 15th of May, 1950, to take over the forests of all the districts north of the Ganga by the application of Bihar Private Forests Act (Act IX of 1948) with a view to manage them scientifically.

The Ex-Ramnagar estate forest was first taken over by the Government under the Bihar Private Forests Act on the 9th of October, 1950, which later with the application of the Land Reforms Act (Act XXX of 1950) vested in the State of Bihar and the Indian Forests Act was applied to them under the notifications nos. C|P.F.-6036|52—86-R., E|P.F.-6036|52—87-R., C|P.F.-6036|52—88-R., dated the 6th January 1953, and C|P.F.|10184|53—344-R., dated the 19th January 1954.

A patch of the Ex-Bettiah estate forest falling in the Bettiah revenue thana was taken over under the Bihar Private Forests Act, vide notification no. C|PF-1030|51—178-R., dated the 16th January 1952. The rest of the Ex-Bettiah Raj forests were under the Court of Wards and were being managed by the Board of Revenue, Bihar, prior to the 24th December 1953 when it was transferred to the Forest Department, Bihar, under the Bihar Private Forests Act. Soon after the vesting of the Bettiah estate in the State of Bihar, the Indian Forest Act was applied to all these forests, vide notification no. 1904-R., dated the 27th May 1955, and since then all the forests in the district of Champaran became State-owned.

A patch of good forests of the Ex-Hathwa estate on the banks of Sikrahna in Madhuban police-station was subjected to the Indian

Forest Act, vide notification no. C|F-17070|54—3439-R., dated the 12th August 1954, after the vesting of the estate in the State.

Since the forests of the district have come under the management of the Government they are being worked in a planned manner on a scientific basis. Out of three trees of exploitable girth at a place only one is marked out for felling. The number of *sal* trees for felling annually for the Ex-Ramnagar estate and Ex-Bettiah estate forests has been fixed at 2,000 and 1,600, respectively. Cultural operation has been prescribed for regeneration and their establishment and growth.

The felling of miscellaneous and *semal* trees is regulated on the basis of a sustained yield from year to year keeping in view the object of building up the forest capital with improved growth and quality. The annual felling of *khair* trees has been fixed at 500 of 3 feet and over in girth. The cane forest is worked in a cyclical order of four years, the time being considered sufficient for the good growth of cane.

A statement of revenue and expenditure of the Ex-Bettiah and Ex-Ramnagar estate forests is given at the end of the chapter which gives some idea of forest yield in the private hands and in the hands of the Government.

Situation.

The main forest of the district lies between 27°-10′ to 27°-31′ north latitude and 83°-50′ to 84°-41′ longitude and is bounded on the north, north-east and east by Nepal, on the south by a long stretch of cultivation and on the north-west by the river Gandak, separating it from Nepal and the districts of Deoria and Gorakhpur in Uttar Pradesh.

A rich forest growth occurred on the islands formed by the usual alluvium and diluvium actions of the river Gandak which still exists and is a subject of changing configuration due to the actions of the river.

Configuration.

Barring aside the forests of Bettiah and Madhuban thanas, the entire Forest area falls on the Sumeswar and Dun ranges, an account of which has already been given under the sub-head ‘ Hills ’.

The forest falling in the Bettiah thana is well known as Udaipur Forest. This occurs on a more or less flat ground in the form of a crescent moon bordering a lake known as Sareya Mon, encircling the land of Majharia village more or less in the form of an island. A small patch of forests exists on the other side of the lake in the village Majharia and along its border. The Sareya Mon is connected with a river, called Haraha, which forms a part of the western boundary of Udaipur forest. The Haraha is not an aggressive river and as there is not much of undulation on the forest floor, the configuration of this forest land is comparatively stable.

The forest in Madhuban thana is on the banks of the Sikrahna river and hence its configuration is unstable.

River System.

The drainage system of the main Ex-Bettiah and Ex-Ramnagar estate forests may be divided into four parts on the basis of their respective catchment area. The drainage system of the Ex-Bettiah estate forest consists of the Great Gandak system and the Haraha Masan river system, while that of the Ex-Ramnagar estate forest consists of the Pandai river system and the Dhoram river system. A description of all the river systems has already been given under the sub-head 'The Rivers'.

Types of Forest.

The forest may be classified into the following types :—

(1) Valley *Sal* Forest.
(2) Hill *Sal* Forest.
(3) Dhup or Pine (Pinus longifolia) Forest.
(4) Miscellaneous Forest.
(5) Riverain Forest.
(6) Cane Forest.
(7) Grassy Blanks.
(8) Swamps.
(9) Bamboo Forest.
(10) Jhaw (Tamarix) Forest.

Valley Sal.—This type occurs in the valleys of Manore, Kaila, Sonha, Bhapsa, Haraha, Masan, Raghia, Dwardah and Pandai.

Very good *sal* occurs in Kaila, Manore and Sonha valleys where the quality is up to Q : I, i.e., matured trees are of 110 ft. and over in height. The Q : II *sal* (i.e., trees with mature height from 90 ft. to under 110 ft.) is also seen in flat ridges of the Dun Hills where the depth of soil is sufficient and enough of moisture is available. The quality of *sal* drops, with the elevation and due to biotic factor. In the Ex-Ramnagar estate forest biotic factor is more marked than elsewhere. From Gobardhana eastward the quality of valley *sal* is comparatively poorer than those occurring in the valleys from Raghia westward up to Gardi. The human pressure with excessive grazing on the portion of the valley *sal* forest from Gobardhana eastward is the cause of drop in the quality.

The common associates of *sal* in the valley type are—

Top Storey—Lannea grandis (*jhingan*); Terminelia tomentosa (*asan*); Terminelia belerica (*bahera*); Adina cordifolia (*karam*); Albizzia procera (safed *siris*); Lager stroemia parviflora (*asidh*); Salmalia malabaricum (*simal*); Anogeissus latifolia (*banjhi*); Ficus religiosa (*peepal*); Dalbergia latifolia (*satsal*).

Middle Storey—Carea arborea (*kumbhi*), Mitragyna parvifolia (*tikul*); Garuga pinnata (*kenkar*); Eugenia Jambolena (*jamun*); Terminelia chebula (*harra*); Eugenia operculata (*bodra*); Steriosperumum suaviolens (*pandar*); Gmelina aroborea (*jamhar*).

Under Storey—Dillenia pentagyna (*aghai*); Millusa velutina (*kariota*); Malltus philippinensis (*rohini*); Casearia tomentosa (*beri*); Holarrhena antidysenterica (*dudhkoraiya*); Casearia graviolens (*beri*); Syplocos racemosa (*lodh*); Bauhinia malabarica (*sahul*); Bauhinia variegata (*kachnar*); Litsaea sebifera (*piroj*); Emblica officinalis (*awla*).

Ground Cover—Clerodendron infortunatum (*litbhant*); Glausend excavata (*agayhar*); Leea crispa (*gorar*); Indigofera pulchela (*bilhul*); Flemingia spp. (*galphulli*); Randia domentorum (*manna*); Thespesia lampas (*bankapas*); Litsea polyantha (*motwa*); Litsaea chinensis; Grewia helicterifolia (*banbhunja*); Asparsgus racemosa (*satawar*); Flacourtia ramonchii (*katahi*); Strobilanthes spp.

A striking feature in the valley *sal* area round the village Gardi in the west and to the north of Manguraha is the occurrence of phoenix humilis (*khajur*) in abundance.

Amongst the grasses the important ones are Heteropogan contortus (*choranth*); Saccharum munja (*munj*); Thysanolia agrostis (*phul jhar*); the last one occurs along sheltered *nalas,* particularly perennial ones.

The common climbers are Bauhinia vahlii (*mohulan*); Butea flora (*mahai*); Vitis repanda (*panilat*); Acacia pennata (*arar*); Smilax spp. (*ram datwan*); Caesalpinia digyna (*hainsa kant,* also known as *tiary* fruit trees); Pipal longum (*peipar*).

Hill Sal.—This type of *sal* forest occurs throughout the hilly regions. These hills are rugged with ravines having deep gorges and jutting out spurs in all directions. The quality of *sal,* in consequence, is poor, stunted, malformed and stag-headed which are commonly met with in this type of forest. The quality of *sal* varies from Q : IV to Q : V, i.e., matured trees attain heights up to 70 feet.

These forests are not of so much of importance for direct yield of timber but for their indirect effect of protection against soil erosion and soil desiccation and, therefore, may be treated as protection forests.

The different storeys of this forest are not so marked as it is of poor quality. The associates of *sal* in this type are the following :—

Buchanania lanzon (*piyar*); Dillenia aurea (*mandar*), Terminelia tomentosa (*asan*); Anogeissus latifolia (*banjhi*); Semecarpus anacardium (*bhelwa*); Terminelia chebula (*harra*); Gardenia turgida (*banian*); Randia dumetorum (*manna*); Randia uliginosa (*pirar*); Emblica officinalis (*awla*); Symlocos racemosa (*lodh*); Steriospermum suaviolens (*pandar*); Holarrahena antidysenterica (*dudh koraiya*); Wendlandia tinctoria (*tilai*).

Among the shrubs are Clausena pentaphylla (*rowena*); Grewia helicterifolia (*banbhunja*); Indigofera pulchella (*bilhul*); Flacourtia ramonchi (*katahi*); Milletia recemosa (*gorax ganj*); Nyctanthes arbertrists (*samsihar*); Phoenix acaulis and poneuix hulimis (*khajur*), which occurs in this type of forest. The most important grasses are Eulaliposis binata (*sabai*) and Heteropogan contortus (*suara* or *chorantha*).

Dhup or Pine Forests.—There is a small isolated patch of Chirpine (Pinus longifolia) forest, locally known as *Dhup*, above the village Raghia between the Kapan Nala in the west and Pakhna Nala in the east between the altitude of 1,000 feet to 1,700 feet. The natural occurrence of Chirpine at this altitude is unique as it is generally found at the altitudes of 4,000 feet to 5,000 feet on the Himalayas. A Chirpine tree of 5 feet 4 inches in girth and 120 feet in height was measured and recorded by the Working Plans Officer, Northern Circle, Bihar. The existence of natural regeneration in the area speaks of the pine making the area its habitat.

The Chirpine occurs with *sal*, Buchannia lanzon (*piyar*); Lager stroemia parviflora (*asidh*); Bauhinia purpuria (*koinara*); and Semecarpus anacardium (*bhelwa*).

Tall spear grass (Hateropogon contortus), *Sabai* (Eulaliopsis binata) and Kathain grass occur in this locality.

Miscellaneous Forests.—This occurs in Madanpur range on the eastern side and the contiguous north-western portion of Gonauli range with narrow miscellaneous belts of such forest along Mirdangwa, Singha, Dwardah, Ganguli, Chhegrahawa and Daini *nalas*. The soil in these localities is subjected to inundation during rains.

This type of forest also occurs to the east of the Pandai river up to the extreme Nepal border. This part of forest has become miscellaneous as a result of biotic factor. The forest has been over exploited by selective felling of *sal*, heavily grazed and burnt year after year and a retrogression has been brought about to a miscellaneous type of forest that exists now.

The common species of the miscellaneous forests are the following :—

Adina cordifolia (*karam*); Terminelia tomentosa (*asan*); Lannea grandis (*jhingan*); Lagerstraemia parviflora (*asidh*); Terminelia belerica (*bahera*); Anogeissus latifolia (*banjhi*); Garuga pinnata (*kenakar*); Steriospermum suaviolens (*pandar*); Gareya arboria (*kumbhi*); Eugenia jambolena (*jamun*); Engenea operculate (*bodera*); Mitragyna parvifolia (*tikul*); Salmalia malabaricum (*semal*); Albizzia procera (*harre*); Trewia nudiflora (*bhilor*); Mallotus philippinansis (*rohini*); Bridelia retusa (*khujhi*); Bauhinia malabarica (*sahul*); Randia uliginosa (*piar*); Cassia fistulla (*amaltash*); Cassearia tomentosa (*beri*); Erhetia loevis (*datrang*); Terminelia chebula (*harra*); Cordia myxa (*lasorha*); Kydia calycina (*patai*); Albizzia lebbek (*kala siris*); Dalbergia latifolia (*salsal*); Salix tetrosperma (*baisa,* only in Madanpur range); Ficus glomerata (*gular*); Aegle marmelos (*bel*).

Shrubs are the same as found in the valley type *sal* forest. Phoenix species are absent and Carissa spinarum (*kanoda*) occurs at places.

The Udaipur forest along Sareya-Mon contains a special type of miscellaneous forest. Along the border of the lake a gregarious crop of Eugenia jambolena (*jamun*) occurs with occasional Ficus tomentosa (*barun*). In the lake patchy growth of Barringtonia acutangula (*izzar*) which grows from its bottom, is found. On the flat surface towards the south and between the banks of the Sareya-Mon and of Haraha river a gregareouis crop of Putranjiva rox-burghii (*patjug*) occurs. The other species that are found are the following :—

Adina cordifolia (*karama*); Alstonia scholaris (*chatwan*); Streblus asper (*shihora*); Mallotus philippinanis (*rohini*); Erhetia laevis (*datrang*); Aegle marmelos (*bel*); *Ghor karanja*; Pongamia glabra (*karanj*); Milusa velutina (*domsal*); Flacourtia ramonchi (*katahi semal*); *Khair* and *Sissoo.*

Semal Forest.—Occurrence of *semal* (Salmalia malaborica) is conspicuous in Madanpur range, although sporadically it is found all over the district of Champaran plains. This is marked in fresh alluvial deposits, which have attained a little maturity. It is conspicuous in the patch of forest in Majharia island of Udaipur forest where its natural regeneration is found. The associates of *semal* are commonly *sissoo* and *khair.*

Riverain forest.—This type of forest mainly occurs along the Great Gandak on its eastern bank in areas subjected to inundation, along the bank of Sikrahna in Pipraiman and Vimalpur of Madhuban thana and along the Pandai and Dhoram *nalas.* Typical riverain succession is noticeable along the bank of the Great Gandak in Madanpur range. The grass is the first colonising species, the most important ones are Saccharum munja (*munj*); Saccharum spontaneum, S. Naranga (*narkat*); Typha elephantina (elephant grass, *pater*). These grasses are followed in succession by Acacia catechu (*khair*) and Dalbergia sissoo (*sisham*); and Salmolia malabaricum (*semal*). In the next stage a typical miscellaneous forest of Dalbergia sissoo (*Sisham*); Salmalia malabericum (*semal*); Adina cordifolia (*karam*); Albizzia procera (safed *siris*); Engenia jambolena (*jamun*) are found.

Cane Forest.—Cane (Calamus tenuis) occurs in damp areas in patches along almost all the *nalas* of Madanpur range, such as Bohua, Baljora, Chamania, Pathlawa, etc., and in a small patch in Bisahia *nala* near Hathimalkhanta in Gonauli range. It also occurs in damp areas in Udaipur forest towards its southern portion. The tree species in the area are *jamun* (Engenia jambolena); *semal* (Salmolia malaberica); *khair* (Acacia catechu); *rohini* (Mallotus philippinansis); *satsal* (Dalbergia latifolia); *vilore* (Trewia audiflora).

Grassy Blanks.—Vast stretches of grassy blanks occur in the bed of the Great Gandak and in the old abandoned sites of cultivation and habitation near the villages, Gonauli and Kotraha.

The common grasses are Saccharum munja (*munj*); Saccharum spontaneum (*kans*); Typha elephantina (*pater* or *hugla*); Davi pharagmitis karta (*narkat*) which occur in *nalas* where water accumulates and also in Sareya-Mon.

Swamps.—A typical swampy area occurs along the Rahua *nala* in Madanpur range. It is a low level marsh almost devoid of drainage. The area is recorded to be 860 acres in extent and is in the process of natural reclamation. The species naturally occurring there are Salix tetrosperma (*bainsa*); Bischofia javanica (*arang*); Eugenia jambolena (*jamun*); Barringtonia acutangula (*izzar*); Dalbergia sissoo (*sisham*); Acacia catechu (*khair*); and Salmalia malabarica (*semal*).

Various water plants exist in the lake Sareya-Mon of botanical interest submerged in deep water.

Bamboo Forest.—Bamboosa arundinacea is found along upper reaches of Saktihari, Harra in Naurangia block of Ex-Ramnagar estate forest and near Nardebi Asthan of Ex-Bettiah estate forest at the site where, according to a legendary, the fort of Allha Ruddal, a chieftain, existed. The bamboo is of thorny variety and is not of much use.

Jhaw (Tamarix Forest).—Jhaw (Tamarix) occurs along the banks of Gandak and is found in pure patches to the south of Narshai island and Rajhawa, Jajhi and Mangalpur *Retas.*

FAUNA.

The wild animals available in the forests of the district are tiger, leopard, panther (Panthera pardus), black-bear (Ursus torquatus), wild dog, wild pig, barking deer (Mutiacus muntjak), *nilgai,* wild buffaloes (Babalus bubalis), black-buck, wild cows and oxen, monkeys (both red and black faced), wolf (Cannis pallipes), hyaena (Hyaena hyaena), four-horned antepole, wild-goats, *sambhar* (Rusa unicolor), chittal (Axis axis), bison (Bibos ganrus), hog-deer, wild cat.

The rhino (Rhinoceros unicornis) also makes stray appearances in the forests of Madanpur range from the neighbouring Nepal State. A solitary rhino is often met with in Rampur Madanpur Forest, Balgangwa forest and the Hathimalkhanta forest.

The specimens that are fast disappearing are hyaena, black-buck, four-horned deer, wild-goats and elephant (Elephas maximus). The last rhinoceros in Champaran district was heard of about a decade back.

The jungle abounds in various kinds of moths, caterpillars and butterflies.

AVI-FAUNA.

It would appear from the previous description that Champaran has forest as well as fields, hills as well as marshes and is situated on the border of the Indo-Gangetic and Himalayan regions. Its avi-fauna is varied and interesting but so little work has been done on this district that the bird population has to be inferred from the systematic list given in the Darbhanga Gazetteer. The birds mentioned in Champaran's own systematic list are those birds which have been definitely recorded from the district and from its size it is apparent that only a small part of the bird population has been recorded.

The most interesting birds of Champaran are the amazonian species of the three-toed quails and two of the migrant waders. Normally in the bird world, in India or elsewhere, the males are bigger and more gorgeously plumaged. The smaller and inconspicuous female accepts suit, sits on the clutch of eggs and hatches it. Since it has not to fight for territory or to win a mate, its smaller size and duller colouring is not a handicap while on the nest the inconspicuousness of the female has a protective function. It cannot be spotted and attacked by enemies easily and, therefore, the nest is not discovered nor destroyed.

With the amazonian species all this is reversed. The female is bigger, more gorgeously plumaged; it fights for its territory and for its mate, is polyandrous and does not sit on the nest. The males do that.

The bustard-quail (Turnix suscitator), the button quail (Turnix tanki), and the little button quail (Turnix sylvatica) are the three amazonian species resident in India. These are all three-toed quails and three-toed quails with similar habits are also found in Australia and Africa. Apart from them the only other amazonian species in the world are the red-necked and grey phalaropes, two waders which are winter visitors to Champaran and other districts of North Bihar and are called *tuhi* in Hindi. These two waders breed near the Arctic Circle and so the pugnacious females are not seen by us nor do we see them in their breeding plumage.

All the three-toed quails are found all over India, except the Punjab and Rajputana. In Champaran especially near Bettiah, the bustard-quail is rather common and prominent. It is called *gulu* in Hindi (the little button quail is called *lawa* and the button quail *burra lawa*) and is an almost tailless ground bird of the size of a sparrow but more roundish and plump. In the bush it seems a darky and heavily barred bird with a slight whitish apology for a crest over the black spotted head. The chin, throat, neck and breast are velvet black and strikes one's attention if the bird raises itself. That is rare, for the bird is a great sulker. The smaller male is duller than the hen and has white chin and black and buff banded breast. The three-toed quails can be distinguished from the quails, especially in the hand, by their having only three toes, the hind toe being missing.

The dominant females of the bustard quails abhor all domestic duties and responsibilities and are the dominant partners of the short-lived mating. They lay the eggs but do not sit over the nest. They leave the incubation and rearing of the youngs to the males. The females parcel out the territory too and use gorgeous plumage for both intimidating rival females and for courting the males. The fights for territory begin as symbolic demonstrations, with much aggressive gesturing and posturing. These birds have not much song, but whatever capacity for making noise during courtship there is, is largely among the females.

The small bush or heavy grass in cultivated fields or the undergrowth of light forest which these birds tenant resounds during the territorial display with loud drumming and booming sounds. That is the voice, song, call as you please, of these bird amazons. They first drum *drr-rr-r-r-r-r-r* and then bellow out from puffed breasts and throats *boom-boom-boom*. These bird amazons are polyandrous. They fight over a male but as soon as they are mated and the eggs are laid—in a shallow hollow on the ground, protected by a bush or grass—they leave the males to brood. The nests are often tunnelled through a dense tuff of *siki* or *munj* grass and the clutch of three to four eggs laid at the back, the brooding male going and coming through the hole in the grass.

The hens having laid the eggs wander in search of new territory and new males. Sometimes a few hens will be together for a short while in the undecided period after a mating, but soon the grass widows, with renewed interest in mating, will start fighting. So desperate is the fight that it is possible to walk up and catch two fighting hens. The bird-trappers of Champaran and Darbhanga know of this pugnacity of the hens and catch them with the aid of decoy females, mind it, not of males.

The avi-fauna of Champaran is also remarkable for the fact that the Nepal Kaleej pheasant (Lophura leucomelana) and the pin-tailed green pigeon (Sphenocercus apicaudus) come down to the thousand-foot contour along with the chirpine on the Siwalik hills around Ramnagar Dun.

Champaran is rich in green pigeons as are many other parts of Bihar. There are five types of green pigeons and the closely allied purple wood pigeon (Columba punicea) which are difficult to tell apart without close observation. The ashy-headed green pigeon (Treron pompadora) differs from the true green pigeon (Treron phoenicoptera) in having its whole nape and crown grey. The orange-breasted green pigeon (Treron bicincta) is at once recognised by its orange breast and chestnut under-tail coverts. The imperial green pigeon (Ducula aenea) is bigger than the others and is purple-grey everywhere except the wings, tail and back which are a deeper metallic green than the yellow-green of the other green pigeons. The purple wood pigeon is smaller than the ordinary green pigeon and is purple instead of green or olive. The pin-tailed green pigeon is distinct from all others because of its long pointed tail.

The most beautiful bird of Champaran is the Nepal Kaleej pheasant. It is the only pheasant found in Bihar; a large ground bird, quite like a fowl. It frequents moister jungle than the jungle fowl but both birds are often flushed from the same place in beats. It is easily distinguishable from the jungle fowl because of its long black hairy crest which trails like a plume behind its head. The kaleej does not have a fleshy comb as crest for the males as the red jungle fowl has, but has a patch of bare and skin on the sides of its face. The male has upper plumage black glossed with blue and its wings and fowl-like tail are dark brown glossed with green. Its black crest is glossed with purple blue and the entire bird gives an impression of undertone of colour seeping through the predominant top coat. A flushed bird disappearing quickly behind a bush has the effect of shot silk. The female has crest and upper plumage reddish brown and black middle-tail feathers.

Of the common birds the brown flycatcher (Muscicapa poonensis) is a small brown bird with its breast and throat mottled. It is a quiet bird more frequently found in the wooded and broken country in the north-west of the district. The grey shrike (Lanius excubitor) is about the same size as the *myna,* french grey in colour with a black stripe above the eye. It is the commonest of the shrikes which are called butcher birds because of their habit of impaling their victims, lizards and small rats, on thorns in the bush as if storing in a larder. The green willow warbler (phylloscopus trochiloides) is a tiny bird, olive green in colour with a yellow supercilium and two white wing-bars. It is a cheerful bird and a good songster.

The black-headed *myna* (Sturnus pagodarum) is like the common *myna* but grey instead of brown. It has a prominent black head and crest, the long crest lying flat on the neck like a pigtail. It is darker in colour than the bank *myna* which has no crest. The grey-headed *myna* (Sturnus malabaricus) is the only *myna* which is purely arboreal in habits, while the bank *myna* is the least used to trees. The grey-headed *myna* is lighter in colour than the common *myna* and is redder than the bank or black-headed *myna*. It has a grey head and has a blue bill (with yellow tip) while all the other *mynas* have full yellow bills. The jungle *myna* (Acridotheres fuscus) can be distinguished from the common *myna* by its darker colour, absence of bare skin behind the eyes and the presence of a tuft of erect hair above the nostrils. That gives it a singularly moustached appearance. The pied *myna* (Sturna contra) is almost as common as the common *myna* but is distinct from all other *mynas* because of its pied plumage—jet black touched off by white wingbars and white sides of face.

The tree pipit (Anthus trivialis) is a tiny bird close to the larks, sandy brown with numerous black streaks. It is fond of fields and is quite numerous in flocks in winter.

The white-eye (Zosterops palpeberosa) is a minute bird, smaller than the sparrow, greenish yellow in colour with prominent white rings round the eyes which give it the appearance of wearing spectacles. Arboreal in habits, it goes about in small flocks in the mango orchards and forests. The northern green barbet (Megalaima zeylanica) is bigger than the crimson-breasted barbet and as big as the *myna*. It is rich green in colour and has brown head, neck and breast. The crimson-breasted barbet has crimson forehead and breast. The barn owl (Tyto alba) is slightly smaller than the grass owl. It is reddish brown with silky white underpart, and has a white longish heart-shaped face. Both the owls screech in the same manner.

The white-backed vulture (Pseudogyps bengalensis) is easily distinguished from the black vulture (Sarcogyps calvus) because the former has a bare fleshy-looking neck. The long-billed vulture (Gyps indicus) is similar to the white-backed but a long bill and a brown back. The griffon (Gyps fulvus) has white down on the neck and the crown and is distinguished from the black vulture because of its colour, fulvous and not black. The scavenger vulture (Nephron percnopterus) is dirty-looking white bird with black edges to its wing and vultures.

The Waders.

The marshes and river banks of Champaran are famous for their ducks and waders. The ducks have been described in detail in the Muzaffarpur Gazetteer, here the waders are discussed.

The waders have all long legs and long bills, but some have web-footed legs such as the avocet and the flamingo. Others are lobe-footed such as the coot. The broadest division of the waders is among those who perch and those who do not.

They perching waders are the storks, herons, ibises and spoonbills and can be easily distinguished from each other by the following key.

The spoonbills have spoon-shaped beaks. The ibises have long slender beaks, gently curved downward throughout (the avocet is the only Indian bird whose beak curves upwards). The herons and storks have straight beaks (except the painted stork whose beak is curved only towards the tip) but they are not hard to tell apart. The two outer front toes of the herons are only webbed at the base; the herons have grooved beaks but not the storks. All the front toes of the storks are joined by a web at the base.

The non-perching waders are the flamingoes, cranes, rails, plovers, snipes, courses, pratincoles and jacanas. Flamingoes are large and extremely long of neck and leg, with short, thick, downwardly bent bills and webbed feet. The cranes are also large and lanky, but have straight rather slight bills, and no web between the toes, except a small one between the two outer. The rails are of moderate or small size, very slab-sided, short-winged and tailed toe, with no web at all between the toes.

The shore-birds—plovers and snipes—are medium-sized or small birds with but few points in common, the chief being that the mouth does not run further back than the forehead, which gives them a very characteristic expression. The plovers have short pigeon-like bills and big heads and big eyes. The snipes and their allies have smaller heads and eyes, and bills always longer than a pigeon's and often very long indeed. The coursers and pratincoles are much like plovers, except for the mouth going further back than the forehead. The jacanas have long thin toes with enormously long, nearly straight claws.

Among the storks the adjutant (Leptoptilos dubius) and the lesser adjutant (Leptotilos javanicus) are at once marked off by their naked necks, to say nothing of their size. Of the other storks, which all have feathered necks, the black-necked stork (Xenorhynchos asiaticus) is much the biggest, being over four feet long, whereas the others except the adjutant and the lesser adjutant are well under this length. The painted stork (Ibis leuocephalus) has its bill gently curved downwards towards the tip, all of the others having straight beaks. The white necked stork (Dissoura episcopus) has a black body and white neck and when walking about does look like a clergy-man. The black body is the result of a curious forked tail of dark colour, barely exceeding the under tail-coverts in length. All the other storks have ordinary tails. The openbill (Anastomus oscitans) is distinguished by its short beak and grey or white colour combined the bill is only about six inches long, while the other storks have one or eight inches or more, except the white-necked, which is a dark-coloured bird.

The white and black storks (Ciconia ciconia and Ciconia nigra) both are winter visitors and have no peculiarities about their necks, tails or bills; they are medium-sized as storks go, being about a yard and a half long with eight-inch bills.

Of the ibises the white (Threskiornis aethiopical) is at once distinguished by its colour. The black (Pseudibis papillosa) and the glossy (Plegadis falcinellus) are both dark birds but the tail of the first is longer than its bill. In the case of glossy ibis the tail is markedly shorter than the bill. The spoonbill (Platales leucordia) is an ibis with a beak nearly straight and flattened, with a wide rounded expansion at the tip, which gives the spoon-like appearance.

The herons can be split into three groups: typical herons, all very big birds never all white or all grey, nor pied; egrets either all white, all grey or pied; and bitterns, smaller birds.

Of the typical herons, the grey heron (Ardea cinerea) is always distinctly grey, while the purple heron (Ardea purpurea) shows much admixture of cinnamon or fawn.

Of the egrets, the large or white egret (Egretta alba) is the biggest while the intermediate and little egrets (Egretta intermedia and Egretta garzetta) are smaller types. The cattle egret (Ardeola ibis) is recognised by its short bill. The pond heron (Ardeola gravi) is always pied and is stouter in build than the other egrets.

Of the bitterns, the common or European bittern (Botaurus stellaris) is distinguished by its large size; it is well over two feet long, none of the other bitterns being as much as two feet. But this is a migrant. The little bitterns (two species) are remarkably small, being fifteen inches or less in length. The little green bittern (Butorides striatus) and the dwarf or yellow bittern (Ixobrychus sinesis) are distinguished from each other by their respective green and yellow colours. The chestnut bittern (Ixobrychus cinnamomeus) and the black bittern (Dupetor fluvicollis) are so prominently chestnut and black that they cannot be mistaken for any other bittern. The night heron (Nycticorax nycticorax) is grey above and white below with green-black cap and back. From the black cap dangles a long white hairy crest. It is the most burly looking bird among the bitterns and can be seen any evening flying out to ponds and fields with frequent calling of *wak wak*.

Of the cranes the *sarus* (Grus antigone) is the only resident species and is distinguished by its great size, well over four feet, and grey colour. The common crane (Grus grus) is of medium size, measuring between three and four feet and varies from light to dark grey. The demoiselle crane (Anthropoides virgo) is the smallest being less than a yard long and bears fine curled hanging plume on each of the head behind the eye. The Siberian or great white crane (Grus leucogeranus) has been recorded only from Darbhanga and is a rare bird as large as the *sarus* but lacking the read on the head which the *sarus* has.

Snipes are shore birds having large eyes set very far back, over the orifices of the ear in fact the back and crown heavily marked with black. The woodcock (Scolopax rusticola) is much bigger than the other snipes being fourteen inches long, while the others never more than barely exceed a foot. The wood snipe (Gallinago menericola) is a foot long and dark in plumage with very short wings. It has not been reported from anywhere else in Bihar except Champaran. The fantail and pintail snipes (Gallinago gallinago and Gallinago stenura) are medium size snipes while the jack snipe (Lymnocryptes minimus) is the smallest.

The most valuable and rather rare bird of Champaran is the kaleej pheasant and deserves very strict protection.

Among the common birds mention may be made of the water voles, the king fishers, the dippers, the swallows, the martins, the swifts, the wagtails, the debacniks, the must beeths, the goat moths, the puss moths, the way flys, the leaf cutter bees, the doves. Besides there are a varieties of passerine birds like the crows, the babblers, the bulbuls, the shrikes, the fly catchers (particularly the famous paradise fly catcher), the finches, the sun birds, etc., and among the non-passerine are wood peckers, the barbets and cuckoos, etc. There are also a vast variety of parrots in jungles.

The number of migrant wader and ducks varies a great deal from year to year.

SHOOTING FACILITIES.

As the Ex-Bettiah and Ex-Ramnagar estate forests had the reputation of being among the best forests in Bihar for purposes of shooting which attracted reputed and rich *shikaries* in the past and were favourite spot for Governor's shooting, it appears interesting to mention about shooting here.

On account of heavy poaching and clearing of forest in the accessible areas many games have become almost extinct in certain cases, e.g., the famous black duck of the Ex-Bettiah estate forest and also the game bird *lassar* have almost become extinct.

Since the vesting of the forests in the State the number of games shot annually has considerably decreased. No shooting permit has been issued since 1956-57 in the Ex-Bettiah estate forest. Creation of game sanctuaries has been proposed under the instruction of the Indian Board for Wild Life and restriction to shoot tiger to a limit of 10 in one's life time has been imposed. Elephants and rhinoceros are completely protected against shooting. Besides, shooting has been restricted to a fixed number of games in each shooting block in a year. Each shooting block is given a rest for fifteen days after shooting.

There is also the usual imposition of close-permit for shooting. But in spite of these restrictions it is felt that there has been a large scale butchering of wild animals and game birds. This is due to a number of factors. There has been a large scale granting of gun licenses to men who have no sportsman's spirit. Some years back it was a common sight that a number of does would be killed and that also during close season with impunity.

The worst offenders unfortunately are the Government officials and their friends. Shooting in the night with spot-light is no sport and this used to be very common before. Strict implementation of the game laws has not been possible and protection of wild life depends to a large extent on co-operation from the public. Forest zones at Bettiah subdivision had certain specimens which are fast disappearing. Some of them have been mentioned elsewhere.

It may be mentioned that since there are vast agricultural fields and thickly populated villages in the centre of many of the forests in Champaran, much of the spirit of a sanctuary could not be given a practical shape, a sanctuary being certain carefully demarcated forest areas where killing or capturing or trapping of wild birds and animals are strictly prohibited. Nevertheless, the Jattashankar forest area of about 30 square miles in Ex-Bettiah Raj forest, extending from Gonauli north of Tribeni Canal to Jattashankar temple on the bank of Gandak, could be well utilised for making a national park, if not a game sanctuary. It is not necessary to make a comparison of relative features of Jattashankar block with the area in Hazaribagh district that has been converted into a national park. But the close proximity of Jattashankar area to the Tarai of Nepal is an unbeatable feature. There is no doubt that we could even have rhinoceros and wild elephant in this area, if converted into a national park. A game sanctuary already exists in Champaran at Udaipur forest. It was formed in 1952 with an area of 8½ square miles or 1121.95 acres. There is a rest house, viz., Udaipur Forest Rest House, located by the side of Sareyamon lake, a beautiful spot for picnic purposes.

Apart from the once fairly rich wild life population which is fast declining we have the water swamps in this district. No other district in the State of Bihar has so many large lakes or lagoons. Most of these lakes once attracted large flocks of migratory wild ducks and geese in cold weather. Various kinds of teals were common. But there has been a decline of bird population as well. Apart from ducks and geese there used to be large flocks of green pigeon in the season. Jungle fowl, pea fowl and imperial pheasant have also become scarce.

In keeping with the general policy followed all over India, the State of Bihar is also working on the recommendations of the Indian Board for Wild Life. The State Board for Wild Life was constituted, vide Revenue Department Resolution no. 4699-R., dated the 3rd|5th December 1953. The Board meets from time to time. Although it is in its infancy, but is expected to be useful. A wild life week in the first week of October is observed to emphasise the necessity of the preservation of wild life through publicity and propaganda.

Regarding statutory laws it is being felt that the Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act, 1912, no longer gives the adequate legal protection that the urgency of the situation demands. Provisions of the Indian Forest Act, 1927, do not always give sufficient protection. It may be necessary to have an Act sometime later which would provide for a machinery to execute the provision of an increased punishment for offenders against game rules all over the State quickly and effectively. The West Bengal Government have drafted a new Bill with similar purposes.

Poaching has also been a problem. There has been no game association which could be made responsible for seeing that game laws are strictly followed by the members within their respective jurisdictions.

It is a happy sign that some fall in the number of animals shot annually has been recorded in recent years in Champaran jungles.

The following official figures are quoted to indicate the trend of shooting in Champaran jungles :—

Name of the game.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.
Sambhar	10	9	2
Nilgai	13	12	1
Spotted deer	18	13	3
Barking deer	18	12	2
Leopard	3	..	Nil
Tiger	3	5	3
Bear	4	Nil	Nil

It is, however, needless to say that the official figures must have missed many animals shot by authorised persons.

Fish.

Among the bigger ones river contains *rohu* (Labco rohita); *naini, buali, moi, katla, tengra, sauri, bami* (Mastacembelus armatus) and *bansari* and among smaller ones *rewa* (Chirrhina reba), *bachwa* (Eutropiichthys vacha), *chepua, pothia, kana* (Xenentodon concila), *derwa* (Danio dangila), *suia* (Gadusia chapra), *jolkapur, patta, garai* (Ophicephalus gachua), *bulla, tengra* and *jhinga* are found.

In lakes most of the above fishes are found and in addition *kewai* (Anabas lestudeneus), *mangur* (Charias batrachus), *senghi* (Heteropnaeustes fossilis), and several coloured fishes are also found.

Gharial or alligator, sunb-nosed *mugar* or crocodile, *kenkara* or crab and *kachhua* or tortoise are common in both Gandaks.

Mahseer fish that was once quite plenty near Bhainsalotan is becoming rare.

Reptiles.

The reptiles that are generally found here are pythons, cobra (*Naia naia*), king cobra (Hymadryad), *karait, dhamin, ghorkarait, dommoha, sugwa, dhonrh, paniadarad, machhgiddhi, sankhar, harhara* and inguana.

Among aquatic specimens mention may be made of crocodiles, alligators, sybet cat, water cat (Otters), and *sons*. Crocodiles are now becoming rarer and so are inguana. The reason is that there has been an indiscriminate slaughter of crocodiles and inguanas for their skins which have a high market value.

CLIMATE AND RAINFALL.

Champaran has a damp, moist and rather enervating climate although it is much cooler than the neighbouring districts of Bihar. At one time Champaran had the reputation of having the worst climate in Bihar and the area in the northern portion of the district in the neighbourhood of Ramnagar, Bagaha and Shikarpur police-stations was taken to be the worst in the district. But with the opening of National Extension and Community Development Blocks the condition of portions of the northern portion of the district has improved. The cold weather starts early and it is generally possible to dispense with fans after the first week of October. The hot weather begins about the end of March. The rainy season has a high incidence of fever.

CLIMATIC DIVISIONS AND THEIR DURATION.

L. S. S. O'Malley discusses the duration of the seasons in his District Gazetteer of Champaran published in 1907 in the following manner: " Except in these notoriously unhealthy tracts (Tarai near Ramnagar, Bagaha and Shikarpur) the climate is comparatively pleasant and cool throughout the year. From November to March it is low and bracing, especially at night, but cloudy skies and cold-weather showers are more frequent than in districts further removed from the hills; light fogs occur occasionally in the day time. The hot weather begins in the middle of March and is at its height in May, a hot, dry month, when westerly winds prevail; but compared with other districts, the temperature is not excessive. In the rainy season the climate is damper and cooler than in the adjoining districts, but the nights are hot and disagreeable, except when there is an east wind to temper the atmosphere. In October the steamy heat begins to be less oppressive, and in November the cold weather is ushered in by a chilly north wind blowing from the hills............".

In fact with the clearance of forests the climatic conditions have also changed accordingly and the differences in feeling in various seasons have become more marked.

Temperature and Humidity.

It was anticipated by L. S. S. O'Malley that " .... Owing to the progress made in clearing the forests and the extension of cultivation in the north of the district, the rainfall is decreasing, while the extremes of temperature are becoming more marked and the mean temperature is rising ". This conclusion he came probably due to the figures mentioned in the Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations published in 1900. There is a statement showing comparative maximum and minimum figures for the years 1874 and 1896. In 1874 the maximum and minimum average temperatures recorded were 83.5 and 69.2, respectively, as against 91.25 and 58.58 for the year 1898. The Report puts in, " Assuming that in both years the methods of observation were proper, is a remarkable fact that for every month, the maximum temperatures of 1898 were higher than those of 1874, while the minimum were lower, and the range of variation therefore very much greater. This seems to be a marked phenomenon of recent years ". In the next Report on Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations published in 1922, this phenomenon is indicated to a very marked degree. The following statement has been quoted from the same source to " show that the range variation has been maintained " :—

Year.	Maximum.	Minimum.
1903	107	39
1904	103	39
1905	102	32
1906	105	39
1907	105	33
1908	107	36
1909	103	35
1910	103	44
1911	103	43

The figures for all the years showing both maximum and minimum temperatures are either far higher or much lower than the figures for both 1874 and 1896.

After 1912 observations at Motihari were suspended for some years.

Following is the statement showing thc temperature chart from 1940 to 1955 :—

Motihari Meteorological Station.	Annual temperature.			Annual humidity (%).	
	Highest maximum.	Lowest minimum.	Mean-½ (max. + min.).	8-30 A.M.	5-30 P.M.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1940	107	41	76.5	77	58
1941	106	43	77.3	79	60
1942	108	41	77.2	81	60
1943	105	40	76.2	82	60
1944	105	41	75.5	80	60
1945	NA	38	NA	79	59
1946	104	40	76.7	81	61
1947	NA	44	NA	77	64
1948	105	42	NA	75	66
1949	101	41	75.7	75	69
1950	105	37	75.4	72	65
1951	109	41	77.4	70	64
1952	104	43	77.1	76	72
1953	109	41	77.3	74	68
1954	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1955	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1953. pp. 8—13.

Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1955, pp. 14—15.

The mean average of 76° has been maintained but the maximum temperature shows a more rise than the previous decades and the minimum temperature curiously enough shows a rising tendency. But the variation between the two is becoming more and more marked than past decades.

Rainfall.

The rainfall in Champaran is reported to be heavier than in any other district in Tirhut, and is specially heavy in the submontane tract, partly owing to the heavy showers which fall when cyclonic storms break up on reaching the hills and partly because the monsoon current is stronger towards the west over the districts just under the hills.

In normal years, the monsoon breaks in June when there is 9.17 inches of rain. The heaviest rainfall occurs in the months of July and August, varying from 15.66 inches in the former to 13.30 inches in the latter. The rainfall then decreases to 10.41 inches in September. The annual rainfall varies greatly and the variation ranged between 39.89 inches and 75.41 inches during the decades 1924—1933 to 1934—1943. The average rainfall of the district in the former decade was 53.796 inches, while it was 56.38 in the latter as against the normal rainfall of 53.16 inches.

In 1938 the average rainfall of the district rose as high as 75.41 inches and 21.05 inches rainfall occurred in the month of June alone. The minimum rainfall was recorded in the year 1932, when it was only 39.89 inches.

From the study of rainfall records from 1924 to 1950 it appears that there was no scarcity of rain excepting in 1932, 1943, 1945 where there were 39.89, 41.08 and 42.57 inches rainfall, respectively. In the remaining years variation from the normal of 2 to 3 inches on either side was recorded. The rainfall statistics for 1950 onwards are given below :—

I

Statement showing the average rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1936-37 *to* 1955-56.

Year.	Average rainfall in inches.
1936-37	72.26
1937-38	56.57
1938-39	72.11
1939-40	47.27
1940-41	50.34
1941-42	57.32
1942-43	44.25
1943-44	47.22
1944-45	49.28
1945-46	43.06
1946-47	59.62
1947-48	52.49

Year.	Average rainfall in inches.
1948-49	55.38
1949-50	55.92
1950-51	48.35
1951-52	51.56
1952-53	60.78
1953-54	59.38
1954-55	51.41
1955-56	62.31

The average normal annual rainfall has been 56.18 inches.*

It is apparent from the above statement that monsoon is extremely moody in nature and fluctuates almost every year. In 1936-37 the rainfall reached the maximum figure of 72.26 inches thus exceeding the normal figure by 16.8 inches which is not a negligible fact. But the very next year there is a downfall in the figure and a little over the normal rainfall occurs. It again goes up to the year before last figure in 1938-39. The year 1939-40 must have been a very trying period for the farmer because the rainfall was far below the normal. The lowest figure of 43.06 was reached in 1945-46. The period covering from 1939-40 to 1945-46 excepting the year 1941-42 when the rainfall was 57.32; the figures show a continuous low rainfall which naturally hard hit the economy of the district. From 1951-52 onwards the rainfall records a satisfactory trend.

A fuller discussion on rainfall and its importance has been made elsewhere in the Agriculture and Irrigation Chapter.

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* *The Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1953, pp. 14—15 and *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1955, pp. 16—17.

II

Statement showing monthly rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1950-51 *to* 1955-56.

	Year.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
A	1950-51 ..	1.24	0.11	3.52	14.55	8.53	14.68	4.74	0.07	Nil	0.15	0.64	0.12
B	1951-52 ..	0.27	0.02	0.42	7.72	18.14	13.46	3.74	0.34	0.37	Nil	0.12	0.29
C	1952-53 ..	1.91	1.94	3.23	11.73	11.67	16.10	11.40	0.52	0.10	Nil	2.05	0.13
D	1953-54 ..	0.95	0.72	1.74	13.52	23.60	8.17	9.57	0.63	0.12	0.03	0.26	0.07
	1954-55 ..	0.02	Nil	2.65	7.08	20.27	15.60	4.31	0.97	Nil	0.04	0.28	0.19
	1955-56 ..	0.05	0.52	1.41	10.09	22.82	10.77	13.66	0.66	Nil	Nil	0.71	1.62
E	Normal rainfall of the district.	0.49	0.68	2.47	9.17	15.66	13.30	10.41	2.37	0.28	0.18	0.47	0.70

A. Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1951, pp. 8-9.
B. Ditto ditto 1952, p. 10.
C. Ditto ditto 1953, p. 16.
D. Ditto ditto 1955, pp. 18-19.
E. Ditto ditto 1955, p. 20.

Even considered against the normal rainfall figures, it is apparent that the district suffers from uneven distribution of rainfall. While the highest rainfall considered normal is 15.66 inches, in the month of July, the corresponding figures for the same month in the years from 1950-51 to 1955-56 show remarkable variations either going up too much or far below the normal figure. The months of August and September also suffer from the same vagary. In short, the rainfall in the district is quite unreliable and even when the total rainfall in a year seems to be satisfactory, an uneven distribution of it often spoils th crops—thus causing widespread distress in the district.

APPENDIX A.

Statement showing the Revenue and Expenditure during the Management of the State Forest Department.

Year.	Total revenue in rupees.	Total expenditure in rupees.	Surplus or deficit in rupees.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5
1950-51	Nil	47,726	(—)47,726	Figures obtained from Draft Working Plans.
1951-52	2,466	63,794	(—)61,328	
1952-53	18,013	65,512	(—)47,499	
1953-54	93,861	82,589	(+)11,272	
1954-55	1,73,266	1,82,894	(+)30,372	
1955-56	2,05,682	1,51,275	(+)54,407	
1956-57	4,96,957	1,74,961	(+)3,21,996	

APPENDIX B.

Statement showing the Revenue and Expenditure of Ex-Bettiah Estate Forest during the period of the Bettiah Estate.

Year.	Total revenue in rupees.	Total expenditure in rupees.	Surplus or deficit in rupees.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5
1941-42	21,965	Not known	..	Figures obtained from Draft Working Plans.
1942-43	Nil	Ditto		
1943-44	22,316	Ditto	..	
1944-45	1,34,044	Ditto	..	
1945-46	48,355	Ditto	..	
1946-47	1,94,652	Ditto	..	
1947-48	1,30,084	Ditto	..	
1948-49	2,53,066	Ditto	..	
1949-50	2,38,144	Ditto	..	
1950-51	1,61,101	Ditto	..	
1951-52	82,745	Ditto	..	
1952-53	34,200	Ditto	..	
1953-54	27,500	Ditto	..	

APPENDIX C.

Statement showing the Revenue and Expenditure of Ex-Ramnagar Forest during the Management of the Estate.

English equivalent date.	Total income in rupees.	Total expenditure in rupees.	Profit in rupees.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5
1st October 1936 to 30th September 1937.	14,400	5,256	11,143	Figures obtained from the Draft Working Plans.
1st October 1937 to 30th September 1938.	14,074	7,884	6,189	
1st October 1938 to 30th September 1939.	76,411	6,588	69,823	
1st October 1939 to 30th September 1940.	33,463	8,585	24,879	
6th September 1940 to 5th September 1941.	84,016	7,317	76,699	
6th September 1941 to 27th September 1942.	35,659	4,142	31,517	
28th September 1942 to 14th September 1943.	1,15,963	12,764	1,03,199	
15th September 1943 to 3rd September 1944.	51,775	15,756	22,926	
4th September 1944 to 21st September 1945.	94,045	12,314	65,922	

APPENDIX D.

Statement of high flood levels of different rivers at their various sites in Champaran district.

Serial no.	Name of river.	Name of gauge.	Maximum high flood level on record.	High flood level.								
				1934.	1935.	1936.	1937.	1938.	1939.	1940.	1941.	1942.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Sikrahna	Sugauli bridge no. 5	..	..	226.25	225.25	222.33	223.66	223.00	223.75	223.50	222.25
2	Ditto	Railway bridge at Chainpatia.	..	248.60	247.00	250.60	244.00	249.00	244.00	249.75	247.00	..
3	Ditto	Bairatpur outfall at Konhar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4	Masan	Bridge no. 4 between Harinagar and Bhairoganj.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
5	Tribeni	Bhainsalotan	..	362.92	364.82	362.42	359.32	361.22	357.22	358.92	360.42	357.92
6	Tiur	Above Tiur headworks	..	238.50	298.80	238.00	296.50	241.70	232.90	232.80	237.40	237.00
7	Tilawe	Siswa railway crossing	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
8	Bougri	Narkadei railway crossing	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
9	Lalbakeya	At Dhaka headworks	..	104.50	106.20	..	104.10	106.00	103.00	105.20	104.20	102.00

Serial no.	Name of river.	Name of gauge.	Maximum high flood level on record.	High flood level.									
				1943.	1944.	1945.	1946.	1947.	1948.	1949.	1950.	1951.	1952.
1	2	3	4	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1	Sikrahna ..	Sugauli bridge no. 5	..	221.83	222.90	222.50	224.50	223.50	223.25	223.58	223.67	..	223.90
2	Ditto ..	Railway bridge at Chainpatia.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	244.75	245.50	246.60	248.00
3	Ditto ..	Bairatpur outfall at Konhar.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
4	Masan ..	Bridge no. 4 between Harinagar and Bhairoganj.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
5	Triboni ..	Bhainsalotan ..	..	357.82	357.62	361.02	360.22	361.82	360.12	362.12	367.20	360.50	360.60
6	Tiur ..	Above Tiur headworks.	..	238.80	238.50	236.50	238.00	240.80	236.90	235.60	236.10	238.10	238.40
7	Tilawe ..	Siswa railway crossing.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
8	Bougri ..	Narkadei railway crossing.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
9	Lalbakeya	At Dhaka headworks	..	102.20	102.60	102.30	104.30	104.50	101.00	103.00	104.00	103.00	104.00

Serial no.	Name of river.	Name of gauge.	Maximum high flood level on record.	High flood level.						Remarks.
				1953.	1954.	1955.	1956.	1957.	1958.	
1	2	3	4	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1	Sikrahna ..	Sugauli bridge no. 5	..	223.80	224.50	224.50	226.3	222.75	223.00	Levels are connected with railway datum G.T.S. Value– Railway datum– 1.48.
2	Ditto ..	Railway bridge at Chainpatia.	..	247.75	..	247.30	248.81	242.39	242.56	Levels are connected with railway datum. G. T. S. Value—Railway datum—1.82.
3	Ditto ..	Bairatpur outfall at Konhar.	..	217.73	..	..	..	..	..	..
4	Masan ..	Bridge no. 4 between Harinagar and Bhairoganj.	..	316.00	..	..	..	..	..	Levels connected to railway datum.
5	Tribeni ..	Bhainsalotan ..	..	360.50	368.40	365.20	359.40	362.60	360.20	Levels connected to G. T. Bench mark.
6	Tiur ..	Above Tiur headworks.	..	237.78	242.50	237.50	230.33	229.33	232.23	
7	Tilawe ..	Siswa railway crossing.	..	253.06	..	..	..	..	..	By observing the flood mark level connected with railway datum.
8	Bougri ..	Narkadei railway crossing.	..	249.40	..	..	..	..	..	Ditto ditto.
9	Lalbakeya	At Dhaka headworks	..	105.00	106.00	231.57	230.67	230.02	230.42	Levels are not G. T. S. but assumed zero of gauge 93.00.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

The district of Champaran, derives its name from the mythological *Champaranya,* or the forest of *Champaka* flowers (*Michielia Champaka*). In fact, it has always been a march land, between Nepal and India, being the extreme north-western district of the Bihar State. Folk-lore, mythology and local tradition give it a more peaceful role militating against the physical and political contexts of the district. Local people claim that it was a dense primeval forest area, in which Vedic ascetics performed their austerities. Geographically, it was a part of ancient Videha and later Tirabhukti or Mithila. The name was derived from a race or tribe of people of the same name as mentioned in the *Brahmana* portion of the *Vedas* as well as in the *Samhitas,* since *Yajurveda Samhita,* mentions the fact that the cows of Videhā are famous in ancient India (*Vedic* Index, Vol. II, p. 298; and Keith's *Veda of the Black Yajus School,* Vol. I, p. 138). According to Julius Eggeling, the 'Kosala-Videhas' were as powerful as the Kuru-Panchalas; and lived to the east of Madhyadesa. These people claimed Videgha-Mathava as their common ancestor and the two branches are said to have been separated from each other by the river Sadanira. According to Eggeling and Dr. B. C. Law, the Videha country in those days constituted the extreme east of the land of the Aryans (B. C. Law *Tribes in Ancient India, Poona,* 1943, p. 235, foot-note 2). In the later *Mantra* period, Videha seems to have been organised to take a leading part in Vedic culture. From the *Birhad Aranyaka* account it would seem, that at the time of *Satapatha Brahmana,* the Videha Brahmanas were superior to the Kuru-Panchalas.

The *Vishnu Purana* and *Brihad Vishnu Purana* mention a tract named *Champakaranya.* The *Sakti Sangama Tantra* also mentions *Champakaranya* along the *Videha* and *Tirabhukti.* It is also a fact, that different parts of Champaran are traditionally associated with different Vedic sages. The Pauranic geographers also associate Uttanapada, his two queens and Dhruva with this area. Manarama-pura, is identified by local people, as the place of battle between Lava and Kusa and their father the great Ramchandra. But, it should be remembered that the *Ramayana* definitely records, that the battle took place on the banks of river *Tamasa* (modern Tons).

The logomachy of Pauranic traditions is not only confusing but misleading. A mass of evidence have been garnered by western scholars like Weber, Eggeling, Caland, Oldenbergh, Jacoboi, Hopkins, Macdonell, Keith Rhys Davids, Fick, Pargeiter and Indian scholars like late Sir R. G. Bhandarkar and his distinguished son D. R. Bhandarkar, late H. C. Roy Choudhury and others. It was the last named who made a pioneer attempt to frame an outline of political history from the accession of Parikshit to Bimbisara, out of the materials supplied by Brahmanic as well as non-Brahmanic literatures.

Champaran, along with Videha and Mithila, comes into prominence after the decline of the Kuru empire. The most notable figure was the philosopher king Janaka. Mithila was then the name of the capital of Videha. The kingdom corresponded, roughly with modern North Bihar, with the exception of certain areas in the Purnea district, which formed a part of a separate country named *Kanjangala-desa*. It was separated from Kosala by the river Sadanira, whose identity is not above dispute. The capital city was named Mithila and it is often mentioned in the Buddhist *Jatakas*. The *Suruchi Jataka* contains some description of the city. The *Mahajana Jataka* too gives a good account of the city (Fausboll—*Jataka*. VI. 30).

The *Ramayana* informs us that, the royal family of Videha, was founded by Simi. The family being known as the high souled Janakas, since, there were several kings of the same name in the dynasty. The members of this dynasty patronised Vedic sacrifices, philosophy and culture. Due probably to the decay of the Parikshitas and consequent anarchy in the Kuru-Panchala country (Rohilkhund to Kurukshettra including modern Delhi and Panipath districts), their court, like that of Jaunpur under Sharquis, became a centre of learned scholars. They probably flourished in *c.* seventh century B. C. Unfortunately, however, the scraps of information available to us from the *Brahmans, Upanishads, Puranas* and the *Jatakas;* it is not possible to reconstruct a coherent picture of the dynasty and its history. But it is certain that the city of Mithila was once burnt to ashes, since the information is supplied by a *Jataka* (no. 589) and it is also mentioned in *Mahabharatam* (XII.17.18-19; 219.50).

What is more, the evidence of the *Vishnu Purana* seems to indicate that in the days of the decay, several collateral families reigned contemporaneously. The rising power of the Kashi king, was another cause of their extinction. The *Mahabharatam* and the *Ramayana* refer to a great battle. The monarchy at Videha was succeeded by a oligarchic republic, in fact a confederation of several clans. The Vedic texts are quite unhelpful after the downfall of Videha monarchy probably early in the sixth century B. C. But the Jaina *Bhagabati* Supta and the Buddhist *Anguttra Nikaya* mention India as divided into sixteen *mahajanapadas*. One of these was the Vajji or Vriji. The confederacy consisted of eight clans (*Atthakula*). These were the Lichchavis, the Jnartikas, the Videhas, the Vrijis, the Ugras, the Bhogas, the Aikshavakas and the Kauravas. This list, nowever, is not accurate.

The Vrijis are mentioned by Panini (IV.2.131) and Kautilya. The latter considers the confederacy as *rajasabdapojivi*. The territory of the Vrijis extended from Kausiki (modern Kosi) to Gandak river and from Ganga to the Himalayas. While the

Buddhist *Suttas* glorify the Lichchavis, the Jaina canon gives an idealised version of the Jnartikas. The capital of the Vriji republic was Vaisali (modern Basarh) in Muzaffarpur district. This was a natural step because old Mithila, wherever it might have been, was full of monarchical tradition. The classic age of the sixteen *mahajanapadas* possibly ended by the end of the sixth century B. C., but the Lichchavis survived till fourth century A. D. Nothing definite is known about this period of transition, when Kosala first gained ascendency, to lose to the Magadhas. Bhimbisara married a princess of the Vriji country; and it was their son Ajatsatru who annexed Videha to Magadha. With the emergence of Magadha, as the successful protagonist of imperialism, in the east, a new chapter dawns in the history of Champaran. A task which Ajatsatru had commenced by annexing Tirhut was completed by Chandra Gupta—Maurya and continued by Bindusara and Asoka. No relics of this early period have so far been met with and spade scientifically wielded is still a rare quality in the researches of Tirhut's early history. But the suggestion that Motihari, Kesaria and Lauriya and Lauriya-Nandangarh were generally forts and capitals of the Vrijis is completely unfounded. They were all religous establishments as we shall have occasion to discuss later on.

The records of the Mauryan dynasty are found on monolithic pillars with foliated capitals in three places in the district. Lauriya-Nandangarh, well-known for its Asoka pillar, at the meeting point of two of the principal routes that lead to Nepal was an important centre of activity. One of these roads connects Lauriya with Bhikna Thoree pass and the other passes along the Gandak through Bagaha, reaching finally Tribeni on the Nepal border at the junction of the Gandak and two other rivers. Along the former route in the north, lies Rampurwa where two Asoka pillars with their capitals, were discovered by D. R. Sahni. One of these capitals—the Bull is now in the National Museum at New Delhi and the other—the Lion is at Calcutta. In the south this line of communication is picked up at Lauriya Areraj the site of another inscribed pillar of Asoka. These tall, highly polished, monolithic pillars surmounted by animal capitals are monuments of great beauty. They represent the triumph of Indian plastic activity under exotic influences, for the vigorous presentation, monumental quality, symbolic character, innervation and dynamic energy. The animal art of the capitals in fact represents the last phase of a plastic activity which reigned in Asia for more than two milleniums (Mauryan sculpture in Benares—a study—*Roop Lekha,* New Delhi, Vol. XXIV, pp. 11—21).

All these pillars are found inscribed with edicts of Emperor Asoka, which he himself tells us were issued in his twenty-sixth regnal year, and in pillar edict VII they are possibly referred to by the emperor himself as *sila stambhas,* and the edicts are called *dhammalipis.* The term *lipi* implies an edict or a record and has been employed in this sense in the special Kalinga edict at Jaugada. These decrees or edicts or records were actuated by a desire on the part of the Emperor Asoka to imbibe a spirit of morality, righteousness and respect for elders and other religions among his subjects. How far he had succeeded in achieving his ultimate object will never be known. Nevertheless, they remain unparalleled in the east or west, except in a different way, by Chenghiz Khan—himself a Buddhist. Because, "Shamanism" is nothing but the Siberian variety of *Sramanism*.

After Asoka, all sources of information disappear. For long centuries, we have to grope through the empty corridors of time, to reconstruct the history of Champaran. We do not know, what happened in this border land of India, when the libidinous last Mauryan monarch was murdered in his ancestral palace at Kumrahar by his general, who founded the Sunga dynasty. The last Sunga monarch was killed by his brahmin Prime Minister Kanva, who established a dynasty of his own. They were overthrown by the Andhras from the south and Kharavela from Orissa. The excavations at Nandangarh carried out by the Union Department of Archæology have furnished evidence of the material culture for the Sunga and Kanva periods. Nandangarh attracted the attention of European explorers early in the nineteenth century; and was investigated by General Cunningham and his Assistants like Garrick and Carllyle. It was, however, a German archæologist, in the employ of the then Government of India, the late Dr. T. Bloch, teacher of R. D. Banerjee—the discoverer of Mohanjodaro, who made the first attempt at systematically studying the remains.* The conclusions of this pioneer worker were no doubt of far reaching character. He was handicapped by lack of knowledge and accurate data from other sides. He regarded the mounds to be royal tombs—corresponding to the burial tumulis, mentioned in the Vedic literature and assigned them to the pre-Mauryan epoch. On the basis of this hypothetical assumption, he identified the naked female divinity, on gold leaf, as that of earth goddess.

The further excavations, carried out by the same department in 1935-36 established that all these were burial memorials with burnt brick basements and were not earthen barrows. It was also pointed out that the gold leaves found by the previous explorers had their exact replica in the stupa at Piprawa (district Basti in U. P.), which was indeed a Buddhist stupa of about 300 B. C. The Lauriya stupas might be of similar date. No evidence was found to connect them with Vedic burial mounds. The layer of yellow clay, which misled the early explorers, according to Sri A. Ghosh, the present Director-General of Archæology, India, were nothing but ordinary sun-dried bricks; the clay being mixed up with husks and straw to counteract plasticity. This is a feature, which it shares with the burnt brick of Piprawa stupa as studied by the present writer under orders of

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* *Annual Report of the Archæological Survey of India*, 1904-05, pp. 11—15.

Dr. R. E. Mortimer Wheeler. It would be furtile therefore, in the present stage of knowledge, to assign any definite dates to any of the mounds at Lauriya, as our conclusions are likely to be subjective. Nevertheless, they are extremely interesting and unique; likely to yield valuable data when thoroughly explored. All of them may not be Buddhistic or Brahminical.

At Lauriya, no trace of an ancient city happens to exist. But according to local tradition, the site at Nandangarh was supposed to be the city. The excavations carried out from 1935 to 1939 has laid bare the true character of the remains, thereby exploding all known theories. The principal mound at Nandangarh, 82 feet in height was thoroughly excavated. Let the explorer, Sri A. Ghosh, be quoted to convey facts. "The mound at Nandangarh, 82 feet in height and about 1,500 feet in circumference, stands about a mile to the south-west of the Asoka pillar at Lauriya at the eastern edge of brick fortification about a mile in perimeter and roughly oval on plan. Excavation of the mound during 1935—1939 revealed a terraced stupa with polygonal basement, each quadrant having 14 re-entrant and 13 outer angles. The walls flanking the first and second terraces followed the polygonal plan of the basement but those pertaining to the upper terraces were circular. An extensive later restoration hid four upper walls and provided new circular walls, but the polygonal plans of the walls of the basement and the first terrace remained unaltered.

"The core of the stupa consisted of a filling of role which yielded a large number of terracotta figurines, cast copper coins, a few punch marked coins and clay sealings of the second and first centuries B. C., the structure therefore cannot antedate the first century B. C."

A shaft driven into the centre of the mound yielded remnant of a brick altar at the depth of 14 feet, truncated in ancient times. At a depth of 35 feet, from the top was found the top of an intact miniature stupa complete with its umbrella square in form. The examination in the interior of the stupa yielded nothing, but beside it in the filling was found a small copper vessel with a lid fastened to it by a wire. Inside the vessel was a long strip of thin birch leaf manuscript which was so fragile that it was impossible to spread it thoroughly. The bits showed it was a Buddhist manuscript written in character of early fourth century.

"The fact that it was found not inside but besides the interior stupa indicated that the stupa had been reconsecrated about the beginning of the fourth century by devotees who had cut through the upper altar and disturbed original earth filling to gain excess to it." (*Archæology of India,* Delhi, 1950, pp. 50—61.)

A very large amount of miscellaneous antiquities, found in the further excavations at Nandangarh, enable us to reconstruct, the material culture of Champaran in the first century before the birth of Christ. The people made iron knives, celts, daggers, awls, arrowheads, etc., as weapons of offence and defence. For currency, they used copper-cast coins, which replaced punch marked coins both of silver and copper. One of each class was actually found during the excavations. The cast coins again were followed by copper issues of Kushana kings. One was of Kanishka, with the king standing on the obverse and the sun God on the reverse. The other was of Huvishka with the figure of King riding on an elephant and four armed Siva on the reverse.* The third was also of Huvishka with the King seated on a couch on obverse and the sun God on the reverse. The find of these coins have far reaching bearing on the history of Champaran; but what is more, they prove beyond doubt, that the stupa at Nandangarh, was undoubtedly in use, till second century A. D. Stone beads, either imported or locally manufactured, of precious stones, such as banded agate, carnelian, crystal and amethyst were also found. In forms; they are hemispherical, cylindrical, ellipsoid, square or rectangular. Sometimes their sides or the surface were fluted.† Casting on metal was practised; and the copper wheel of a toy cart was also found.

But it is the humble potters' art—that furnishes us with the rich imagination and aesthetic sense of the people. The clay figurines may conveniently be divided into three classes—human and animal. The third class consisted of images such as the phallus of Siva. The first class again is an untapped source as far as studies on dress, costumes, head dresses, ornaments and customs of the people of Champaran are concerned. The human figurines again can be easily subdivided into two groups; male and female. It is the last group which is most interesting and worth studying. It is a pity that Professors in our Universities do not encourage the students to take up these investigations which would fill many hiatuses in the cultural history of India. One figure has a bulged gown and disc shaped ornaments for the head. It resembles a figure found at Bulandibagh in Patna district (B. 1916 of Patna Museum).‡

Another woman, standing with her hands on her hips, is an interesting type. A clay mould of this figure was also found, to prove that these were moulded. Another has a female figure with two wings. Subjectively they can be ascribed to c. second or first century B. C.

Most of the women figures found in 1936-37 wear in the ear *patra-kundalas*. The heads are distinguished by variety and expression indicating modelling. There are some crude figures, showing a mother and a baby. It is very difficult to determine their sectarian identity. They might be Hindu or Jain-Agnila, or Buddhist-Hariti, goddesses of children. Amongst animal figurines the figures of Ram and Elephant deserve mention. An interesting piece, was a silver ring. It is inlaid with two pieces of gold foil, on one of which is seated a female figure in *repousse*.

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* *Annual Report of the Archæological Survey of India*, 1936-37, p. 64.

† *Ibid* 1935-36, plate XXIII, figs. K to N.

‡ *Ibid*, 1935-36, p. 64, plate XXII. figs. O and M.

In the present stage of our knowledge it is difficult to state what was the exact political condition of Champaran during the Sunga and Kanva periods. On the evidence furnished by the Ayodhya inscription of Pushyamitra, where he has been described as the lord of Kosala, we might safely infer that Champaran was included in his kingdom.

In the first century of the Christian era, a new power appears on the political stage of Northern India, known as Kushanas. These were Turks, who migrating from the steppes of Central Asia, had established an empire from the Caspian to the Arabian Sea. The eastern expansion of the Kushana Empire though undoubted still remains a favourite point of controversy with many parochials for whom logic and reason have no value. The evidence is complicated and is based upon find spots of coins and inscriptions in various parts of north-eastern India. In addition to these, there is the evidence of the Roman geographer Ptolemy, who refers to a people called Mandaloy who ruled over Pataliputra and Tamralipta areas. Dr. B. C. Sen wants to equate *Mandaloy* with *Mandaladhipati*. But *Mandaloy* seems to be the same as *Maroundai* mentioned by Ptolemy; and as suggested by Sri S. K. Bose, may have played no insignificant part in the politics of Eastern India, after the disintegration of the Kushana Empire.*

Maroundai was Latin for *Murundas* meaning Saka lords, equivalent to Sanskrit *Svamin*.†

But so far, in all our discussions, the term "Eastern India" has been used in a very vague sense; and no efforts seem to have been made, to find out, whether outlying districts like Champaran, Darbhanga, Saharsa were included in it. Several places in Champaran, have yielded copper coins. Sri Ganesh Chaubey of Bangari, found few copper coins which included those of Vima-Kadphises and those of Huvishka. Coins of Kanishka and Huvishka were found at Nandangarh. At Bediban, a village near Mehsi, on the Motihari-Muzaffarpur road and about half a mile north-east of the Pipra railway station, five copper coins were found and forwarded by the Subdivisional Officer, Sadar, Motihari, to Sri S. V. Sohoni, I.C.S. According to him two of these coins were Kushana issues and one of them definitely that of Kanishka.* The recorded find spots of the inscriptions mentioning Kanishka, come up to Saheth-Maheth, in the ancient Kosala country. About this king, it is said that he carried off to Gandhara, the famous 'alms bowl' of Buddha about first century A. D.† It is quite possible, therefore, that Champaran was included in the empire of the Kushanas from Kanishka up to Huvishka after which it came to be ruled by small scythian lords.

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* *Indian Culture*, Vol. III. p. 727 ff.

† The whole evidence has been summarised and discussed in the Eastern Expansion of the Kushana Empire—*Indian Historical Quarterly*, Vol. XXVII, pp. 294—303, and *Kushanas in Eastern India—Journal of the Numismatic Society of* Vol. XIII, p. 107 ff.

On the dissolution of the vast Kushana Empire, a member of the clan of Banphar Rajputs, rose to certain pre-eminence, in the third century of the Christian era. It has been suggested, that these Banphar Rajputs, might have been connected with Vanaspara, mentioned in the Sarnath image inscription of Emperor Kanishka, dated the third regnal year, equivalent to 81 A. D. According to late Sir George Grierson, the home of the Banphar Rajputs seem to have been modern Buxar.‡ A member of this community named Visvasphani was endowed with great prowess; and originally a ruler of Magadha, exercised a sort of imperial authority. His policy was based on the extermination of the old ruling families; and the substitution in their place of a new order.** According to the Pauranic tradition he committed suicide by drowning himself in the Ganges. The third century of the Christian era is indeed a dark age in Indian history and unless systematic excavations in the well-known historical sites have been carried out to garner a mass of evidence, it will always remain so. Two largest empires in the Northern India and Peninsular region, viz., the Kushana and the Andhra empires had gone the way of Nineveh and Tyre with the consequence that the whole country must have been parcelled out amongst small princes. Towards the beginning of the fourth century A. D., Eastern India again takes the lead, towards integrity, unity and prosperity of India. That is the fundamental role of Eastern India, which no imperial historian can deny. Again and again, it has made its debut amidst chaos and shambles of empires, to stand for a united India, peace, law and order and cultural development.

During this period of darkness two other persons, each known from a single record, separated from each other by hundreds of miles appear and far from solving the puzzle creates a tangled skein. The first is the inscription, on the celebrated Iron Pillar, now to be found within the court of the mosque, built by Qutb-ud-din Aibak at Meharauli, a village in the neighbourhood of New Delhi. The sovereign is here called "Chandra" who fought a battle in the Vanga country and also defeated the Vahlikas (some people hailing from Balkh). His fame is reputed to have reached the southern sea. The other inscription is to be found on the Susunia hill, in the Bankura district of Bengal, 17 miles south-west of the Raniganj railway station; and about 12 miles north-west of Bankura town. This record consisting of three lines mentions a Maharaja Chandravarman, whose father was also a Maharaja, who was the lord of Pushkarana (modern Phokhara, in the Bankura district close to Susunia hill). We do not know, however, whether their kingdoms included Champaran or not. About 319-20 A. D., Magadha woke up after three long centuries of slumber, once more to take its place in the vanguard of national armies and its rise again brought independence, self-realisation and glory to the people of Northern India. Once again Magadha became the mistress of an empire which extended from the western to the eastern sea, and from the foot of the Himalayas to the banks of Narmada. The dynasty which brought about this change, are known as the Imperial Guptas of Magadha founded by Chandragupta I, who married a Lichchavi princess and their son Samudragupta was the real founder of the empire. In the Allahabad fort, there is an edict bearing pillar of Emperor Asoka, on which Samudragupta also got inscribed an account of his early career. From this we can infer that no part of southern and western India was included in his dominions; only the north-eastern corner of Malwa was undoubtedly in his occupation. Kings of Samatata, Davaka, Kamarupa, Nepala and Kartripura are mentioned as princes on the frontiers. Samatata is South-Eastern Bengal, Kamarupa is lower Assam, Nepal is too well-known to require any clarification while Kartripura belong to the Kangra valley ancient *Kiradesa.* Therefore, the empire of Samudragupta, was bounded on the east by the Gangetic delta and Assam and on the north by the valleys of Nepal and Kangra. We may, therefore, safely conclude that Champaran was included in the Gupta empire. Gupta age has justly been regarded not merely as the golden age of Indian culture, but as a *renaissance,* due to the transformation in the ideals of the people of Northern India in the fourth or fifth century of the Christian era. This transformation was based on an assimilation of what was old, an elimination of what was exotic and foreign; and finally a synthetic production of something entirely new, which was essentially Indian. Unfortunately, due to lack of excavations and investigations in the villages where ancient copper plates or inscriptions on stone may still exist, the history of Champaran in this glorious age is imperfectly known.

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* *Journal of the Bihar Research Society*, Vol. XII, p. 166, foot-note 1.

† *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, London*. 1913, pp. 627—650, 1914. pp. 79—88; 95—102; 369--382; 403—410; 748—751.

‡ *Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society*, 1920, p. 150.

** Dr. B. C. Sen—*Some Historical Aspects of the Inscriptians in Bengal*, p. 199.

It was in their time that Fa-hian, the Chinese pilgrim, visited India about 400 A. D. The next mention of this part of the country occurs in the itinerary of Sung-yun who visited India in 518 A. D., found the north-western portion in the possession of race of Huns. The question whether the Huns were ever able to extend their dominions beyond Malwa is a moot point. The references to the inscriptions of Kumargupta I and Skandagupta to the Huns possibly indicate that the clashes occurred in Madhya Bharat and not in Eastern India.

Champaran along with Tirhut was possibly annexed by Harsha when the celebrated Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang visited India. On the death of Harsha in 648 A.D., his empire disintegrated and Arjuna, one of his ministers usurped the throne. Meanwhile the Chinese Emperor had sent an embassy through Tibet under Wang-hiuen-tse and his colleague. Arjuna with all the qualities of an upstart had the short-sightedness to attack the embassy. The leaders however had the good luck to escape into Nepal by night; and obtain reinforcements from the Tibetan king whom we shall have occasion to discuss later. With the small army placed at his disposal by the Tibetan and the Nepalese governments, Wang-hiuen-tse descended on the plains of Videha and succeeded in storming the capital. Three thousand of the garrisons were beheaded and ten thousand persons were drowned in a nearby river. Arjuna made good his escape, collected a fresh army, offered battle and was again disastrously defeated. The victor beheaded about one thousand prisoners and captured the entire royal family. He took twelve thousand prisoners, obtained thirty thousand heads of cattle and Arjuna was carried off in chains to distant China. Wang-hiuen-tse again visited India in 657 A. D. probably through Nepal and possibly by the old pilgrim route through the Bhikna Thoree pass and then travelled through Vaisali, Bodhgaya, etc.

Nepal which had been integrated with Harsha's Empire regained its independence. But it was soon to lose it to a new power which had arisen in the tablelands of Tibet. Some time between 581 and 600 A. D., a chief Loun-tsanso-loung-tsan united the hilly tribes in the south-eastern frontier of India and founded the kingdom of Tibet. His son Srong-btsan-sgam-po was a great conqueror and extended his dominion in all directions. He married a Chinese princess and came to the aid of Wang-hiuen-tse as already stated. He compelled the King of Nepal to give his daughter in marriage to him and for nearly two hundred years Nepal remained a vassal state of Tibet. He took full advantage of the anarchy following the defeat of Arjuna to extend his dominion in India and not only added Assam to his previous conquest of Nepal but also is said to have been master of nearly half of India. Leaving aside these exaggerations we may take it for granted that modern Champaran, Darbhanga, Purnea and Saharsa were all included in his empire along with Basti, Gorakhpur and Deoria in U. P.*

He died about 650 A. D., and was succeeded by his grandson Ki-li-pa-pon (G. 650 to 679 A.D.), who was able to mantain his

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The account that follows is taken from *Sylvain Levi—Le Lepal*, Tomes I and II, pp. 164 ff. and 173 ff. Dr. R. C. Mazumdar holds different views regarding the conquest of Wang Hieun-tse (The Classical Age, Vol. III).

hold over the Indian dominions. That Nepal was included in the Tibetan empire is proved by the Lagantol inscription of Sivadeva dated in 119 of some unknown era. But during the troublesome period of minority and natural regency regimes that followed, China conquered the provinces from Tibet; and while the Tibetian king was busy defending his empire in the Central Asian desert, Indian provinces revolted. The revolt in Nepal like that of Ur-Nina of Ur in Mesopotamia against Hammurabi was put down with an iron hand. The evidence is supplied by the name of the Nepalese king Aramudi who according to Kalhana opposed Jayapida, king of Kashmir. Stein rejected the episode as not based upon truth; but Levi has shown that the name of the king is Tibetan. In the first half of ninth century A. D., the Tibetan King Khri-lde-srong-bstan is credited as ruling over an empire extending from Inner Mongolia in the north to the Ganges.

EARLY MEDIÆVAL PERIOD.

The commencement of the mediæval age in India found eastern India in possession of the Palas of Bengal. In the reign of Devapala deva or that of his successor Tirabhukti was still included in this empire because in his seventeenth year Narayanapala granted the village of Kalasapota in Tirabhukti to the *Ro. acharyas.* Towards the end of the tenth century A. D., Gangeyadeva of the Kalachuri dynasty conquered Champaran. This was followed by an invasion of Vikramaditya, the son of the Chalukya Emperor Somesvara I (1040—1069 A. D.). Accompanying him were several military adventurers from the Carnatic. One of these founded the Sena dynasty of Bengal and the other was progenitor of the Carnatic dynasty of Mithila with the capital at Simraon in the Indo-Nepal border. Thus one of the records of Chalukya Emperor Somesvara III—Bhulokamalla dated in 1162 A. D., states that Nepal was included within his empire.* Naturally, therefore, Champaran did not escape his attention. The Kalachuri King Bijjala who defeated and deposed Tailapa III, the son and successor of Somesvara III is credited in an epigraph dated in 1200 A. D., for having disturbed the peace of Nepal. The Managoli inscription states that Yadava Jaitugi (1191—1210 A. D.) defeated the leaders of the armies of Nepal. These repeated invasions seem to have disturbed the political equilibrium in these frontier lands of North-Eastern India and paved the way for the foundation of the Carnatic kingdom in Mithila. According to the Nepalese tradition, Nanyadeva captured the whole of Nepal and established his capital at Bhatgaon. The truth lies probably in the fact that Nanyadeva was able to establish some sort of political influence over Nepal. The successful career of Nanya, however, was eclipsed by Vijayasena of Bengal; but his *faineant* successors continued to hold Champaran for the next two hundred years. Nanya was succeeded by Gangeyadeva not to be confused with the ruler of the same name of the Kalachuri dynasty. He was followed by Nrisimhadeva, who was succeeded by Ramasimhadeva. Sakti Simha came to the throne after Ramasimha who was followed by Bhupala Simha. The last king was Harisimha when the city of Simraon with its series of defences were given up to loot and plunder. In the beginning of the thirteenth century A. D. India faced a foreign invasion, like of which it had not met since the Hun invasion in the fifth century A. D. In the magnitude of devastation, massacre, loot, rapine and arson it still stands unparalleled in the history of the world except the fate suffered by Constantinople at the hands of the Turks. Tirabhukti and Champaran, however, remained unaffected, for the time being.

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* *Journal of the Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society,* Vol. XI, p. 268.

Achievements of the Carnatic (Karnataka) Dynasty of Simraon.

From Purushapura (mod. Peshawar) to Kamarupa (south-eastern Assam), the major portion of *Aryavartta* had been overrun by the Turks, but the small tract of land bounded by the Ganges, the Kosi and the Gandak had been able to maintain its independence. This was no small achievement of the people of Champaran under leadership of the Carnatic kingss; if we remember the fact that the present West Pakistan, the East Punjab, Delhi, Ajmer, Kanauj, Benares, Southern Bihar, Southern Bengal were all conquered by the Turks. That is why, the dynasty founded by Nanyadeva is so important, in the history of India, yet very little information about them are available. The Nepalese inscriptions contradict themselves and even the line of succession given above is by no means final. When Magadha, Gauda and Vanga, had been conquered, crowds of scholarly Brahmins and Buddhist Bhikshus sought shelter in this small area which had remained the only refuge of Hindus and Hinduism. Like the Hugenots in France, their migration to avoid an inevitable doom resulted in a rich and glorious harvest. Darbhanga, Champaran, Purnea, Saharsa, all these districts, which are now regarded as backward, became the most renowned centres of Sanskrit learning like Benares under the Gahadavalas and Jaunpur under the Sharqi kings. The first scholar to attempt a systematic history of the Carnatic dynasty on a scientific basis was the late M. Chakravarty.* Among those who made Mithila great in the hour of India's shame may be mentioned Chandesvara Thakur and his collaterals, Dattopadhyaya, Bhava Sharma, Harinath Upadhyaya, Indrapati and Lakshmipati, etc. They made Mithila the centre of *Nyaya* studies. Padmanabha Datta and his pupils initiated a new system in the study of grammar. Bhanudatta Misra was responsible for compiling many works on sex-psychology and prosody. Jyotirisvara composed a book on the Maithili language called *Varnaratnakara* and Bhava Datta composed a commentary on *Naishadhacharitam*.

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* *Journal and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* (H.), Vol. XI, pp. 407—33.

But the glories of the Carnatic dynasty went out in shame and disaster. Hardy barbarians from Delhi under the leadership of Ghyas-ud-din Tughluq swept over the smiling plains of Champaran. The only account available of the last tragic acts are from *Feristhah* :—

> "As the king (Ghyas-ud-din) was passing near the hills of Tirhut the Rajah appeared in arms, but was pursued into the woods. Finding his army could not penetrate them, the king alighted from his horse, called for a hatchet, and cut down one of the trees with his own hand. The troops, on seeing this, applied themselves to work with such zeal that the forest seemed to vanish before them. They arrived at length at a fort surrounded by seven ditches, full of water, and a high wall. The king invaded the place, filled the ditches, and destroyed the wall in three weeks."

MUSLIM PERIOD.

The first definite reference to Tirhut in Muslim *Annals,* is found in the reign of Sultan Ghyas-ud-din Iwaz (1213—1227 A. D.). The earliest reference to Tirhut as a feudatory state of the Khalji Maliks of Lakhnawati is met with in *Tabakat-i-Nasiri* (English tr. page 586). Even at that time it merely paid occasional tribute. In 1321 A. D., there is a reference in a Persian work to Tirhut. It states that Emperor Ghyas-ud-din Tughlaq (1320—1324 A. D.) had marched towards Lakshmanavati and Nasir-ud-din Mahmud Shah of Bengal had met him at some undefined place in Tirhut.* By 731 H. (1330 A. D.) Tirabhukti was already annexed to the Tughlaq empire, because, a copper coin was issued from Tughlaqpur in Tirhut. At that time Mohammad Tughlaq was ruling in Delhi.† The late Dr. K. P. Jayaswal drew our attention to a Nepalese inscription which refers to a Muslim invasion of Nepal.‡ Sri S. V. Sohoni, however, states "Before this inscription was recorded, i.e., before 1346 A. D., Tughlaq Shah Ghazi conquered Tirhut in 1324 A. D., from Raja Harisinghdeo whose Raj was restored to him in 1325 A. D., when Mohammad-bin-Tughlaq succeeded his father. Harisingh's capital was at Harisinghpur (in what is now P.-S. Bahera, in Darbhanga Sadar subdivision)".

Tabakat-i-Akbari (p. 244) states that Shams-ud-din Ilyas Shah (1339—1358 A. D.) had conquered all the territories up to Banaras. It was probably on this occasion that Nepal and Champaran was invaded; and *Suratrana Samsdina* along with a large Bengal army refers to this king and not to Tughlaq invasion. The Tughlaq occupation of a part of Champaran, however, is also proved by the

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* *Elliot's History of India,* Vol. III, p. 234 and R. D. Banerji's *History of Bengal,* Vol. II, pp. 91 ff.

† H. N. Wright's *Catalogue of Coins in the Indian Museum,* Vol. II, pt. I, p. 60, no. 384.

‡ *Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society,* Vol. XXII, p.81 ff.

Bediban inscription of Mohammad-ibn-Yussuf.* Because in the *Tarikh-i-Firoz-Shahi* (pp. 586—88) it is stated that Firoz Shah hearing of Shams-ud-din's invasion of Tirhut and Nepal arrived at Gorakhpur from Delhi along the route on the northern bank of the Ganges. Shams-i-Siraj Afif states that he had forded Kosi in Champaran. (*Elliot's History of India*, Vol. III, pp. 293-94.)

With the advent of the Tughlaqs, we find a new dynasty replacing the Simraon rulers. The Tughlaq emperors placed Tirhut under Kamesvara, founder of the Sugaon or the Thakur dynasty. He was a Brahmin and *Rajapandita* as mentioned by Vidyapati in his *Dana-Vakyavali*. The dynasty continued of rule over Tirhut till the sixteenth century A. D. *Kirttilata* mentions that Kamesvara was deposed by Firoz Shah Tughlaq in favour of his son Bhogisvara. The Afghan conquest of Tirhut and Champaran swept over the land like a tropical thunderstorm without being able to sweep away the traditional Hindu organisations. So long as the Hindu rulers acknowledged the Muslim ruler by paying an annual tribute, they practically remained independent. Kirtti Singh, second in descent from Bhogisvara, was also a younger son who obtained the *gadi* from the emperor. The most renowned member of this dynasty was Siva Singha, a patron of Vidyapati, his queen was Lakshmidevi. He is reported to have built his capital at Sivasinghapura. In 1402 A. D., Siva Singha seems to have refused to pay tribute and succeeded in maintaining his independence. He appears to have struck gold coins in his name.† But his triumph was short lived and within a few years he was defeated and carried off to Delhi; while his wife Lakshima, accompanied by the poet Vidyapati took refuge in Nepal, where she seems to have committed *sati*, when for long twelve years no news was received of her consort. A copper plate grant dated in V. S. 1455 (1398), S. E. 1321 (1398 A. D.) and 292 L. S.** has been found. It records the grant of village of Bisapi to the poet Vidyapati. ‡ Siva Singha was succeeded by his younger brother Padma Singha who was succeeded by Harasinghadeva mentioned by Vidyapati in his *Vibhagasara*.

R. D. Banerji thought it was at this time that another Brahmin dynasty separated Mithila from Tirhut and established a separate kingdom with capital at an unknown place in Champaran. The names of only three princes of this dynasty are known. First was Prithvi Singh in whose reign a copy of *Devimahatamya* was made in 1492 V. S. (1435 A. D.) and the colophon of this manuscript preserved in the Darbar Library, Nepal, mentions the prince and his capital "Champakaranya". Possibly he was succeeded by Sakti Singh, who in his turn was followed by Madana Singha. This prince is mentioned in the colophon of two manuscripts with his *Viruda, Daitya narayana.* These are a copy of *Amarakosha* copied at Champakaranya in 1511 V. S. (1454 A. D.) and the second a *Narasinghapurana* copied in the village of Sipahakataka, in Gorakhpur. Both these manuscripts are now in the Darbur Library, Nepal. Madana Singha issued copper coins which have been found at various places in U. P., Gorakhpur and the Punjab.* They have on the obverse the name of the king while on the reverse "Champakaranya" is mentioned.

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* *Journal of the Bihar Research Society*, Vol. XLI, p. 164.

† *Annual Report of the Archæological Survey of India*, 1913-14, pp. 248 f.

** *Lakshmana Samvat*. The Christian equivalent would be 1398 A.D.

‡ *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, 1895, pt. III, *Indian Antiquary*, Vol. XIV, p. 190.

We had noted that in Tirhut Padma Singha was succeeded by Hari Singha, who was followed by his son Nara Singha mentioned by Vidyapati, Vachaspati Misra, Misaru Misra and Gadadhara *Tantrapradipa.* He had two wives, Dhiramati and Hiradevi. He was succeeded by one of his sons Dhirasinghadeva. It was during his reign that Vidyapati composed his last work *Durgabhaktitarangini.* His younger brother is supposed to have defeated a King of Gauda. Bhairava Sinha succeeded Dhirasinha. His queen was Jayatma, being the mother of Purushottamadeva. He was a great patron of Sanskrit learning. Bhairaba Sinha was succeeded by Ramabhadra *alias* Rupanarayana. Ramabhadra was succeeded by his son Lakshminathadeva or *alias* Kamsanarayana. During his rule, Tirhut was attacked from the east by Sultan Alla-ud-din Hussain Shah of Bengal and from the west by Sikandar Lodi. In the treaty that was concluded in 1496 between the Sultans of Delhi and Bengal, Tirhut and Magadha fell to the share of Lodi Sultan. Sikandar Lodi then attacked Tirhut and made the prince a tributary chief. But in 1530 A. D., Nasrat Shah, son of Alla-ud-din Hussain Shah attacked Tirhut, annexed the territory and killed the Raja.†

Nasrat Shah in 1519—1532 A. D., appointed his son-in-law Viceroy of Tirhut and thence forward the country continued to be ruled by the Muslims. A spirited account of Sikandar Lodi's Champaran campaign is to be found in a Persian work known as *Wakiat-i-Mushtaki* by Sheikh Rizquilla Mushtaki. While the last Hindu kingdom in Bihar was being extirpated by the Afghans, their own dusk had arrived. In 1526 A. D. on the fateful battle field of Panipath, Barlas Turk Babar shattered the glories of the Lodi's and many noble Afghans migrated to Bengal to escape the yoke of the Timurids. After this, Champaran does not come into prominence until the last days of Mughal rule when it is evident that it continued to be ruled by semi-autonomous Hindu princes. The *Ain-i-Akbari* mentions Champaran as a *Sircar* with three *mahals,* the area in *bighas* being 85,711, yielding revenue of 1,37,835 *siccas.* The assessment was made under the supervision of Raja Todarmal. After Akbar

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* *V. A. Smith—Catalogue of Coins in the Indian Museum,* vol. I. p. 293, nos. 1—3 and *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal,* Old Series Vol. LXVI. 1897, Pt. I, p. 310.

† Dr. Jadu Nath Sarkar's view will be found in the History of Bengal, Vol. II. pp. 145-46.

Champaran as a *Sircar* is mentioned in the reign of Aurangzeb again, as yielding a revenue of 2,10,151 *sicca* rupees. *Khulasat-ut-Twarikh,* a work written in the seventeenth century, mentions that in the *Sircar* of Champaran they sow the seed of the vetch *mash* without ploughing the soil, and it grows without the labour of cultivation. The long pepper grows abundantly in its jungle.

In 1729 Alivardi Khan who had been appointed his Deputy by Shuja-ud-din arrived in Patna with five thousand men. (J. N. Sarkar's *India of Aurangzeb,* 1901.)

Before Alivardi the imperial Viceroy of Bihar was Fakhr-ud-daulah; and Alivardi inherited a thorny pro-consul's crown from him. The whole province was in an anarchic state and the zamindars were turbulent and rebellious. What is more, a band of wandering people called the *Banjaras* in the guise of innocent travellers and traders, plundered the imperial domains. Amongst the zamindars, was the Rajah of Bettiah. The Bettiah estate like many of its contemporaries was not a landlordism purchased in a collectorate auction with the protection of British bayonets. It was carved out, towards the end of the sixteenth century, by one Ugrasena Singh, who according to the family records had a son named Gaja Singh. This Gaja Singh received the title of Raja from Emperor Shahjahan (1628—1658 A. D.). The Persian historiographers describe the Raja as extremely spirited, whose territory had never been entered, either by the army of the Nazims or that of the Subahdars. Alivardi Khan reached Champaran; and found the area in complete disorder. The shrewd governor of Bihar, enlisted the Darbhanga Afghans in his army, and first chastised the predatory *Banjaras* obtaining an immense booty from them. Having liquidated the *Banjaras,* Alivardi proceeded against the Rajah of Bettiah. Raiding and pillaging his territory, Alivardi was able to humble the Raja and collected several lakhs in specie and other effects. He settled with the Raja, the amount of annual tribute and the imperial revenues to be paid by the latter.

The second visit of Alivardi to Champaran was due to the Afghan insurrection of 1748. Under the leadership of Mustafa Khan, they murdered Alivardi's son-in-law Zain-ud-din, at Patna who was then the Governor of Bihar under Alivardi and captured Patna. Alivardi recovered Patna, defeated the allied Marhatta and Afghan armies then under Shamsher Khan. The women of Shamsher Khan's family had been kept under the protection of the Raja of Bettiah. This led to Alivardi's second visit to Champaran. The Raja of Bettiah had learnt his lesson and handed over the widow and daughter of Shamsher Khan to Nawab's officer without any resistance. The ladies were however treated with great courtesy by Alivardi. Thus ended Alivardi's reign.

In 1760, Champaran again witnessed the march of contending armies. On this occasion Prince Ali Gauhar, later on known as Emperor Shah Alam, was invading Bihar; and Khadim Hussain, the then Governor of Purnea, marched out with a large army to join the son of his *de jure* sovereign. By that time Siraj had been defeated and killed; and the traitor Mirzafar was ruling as the stooge of the British. Captain Knox of the East India Company and defeated Khadim Hussain before he could establish contact with the Prince at Hajipur; and the frustrated Governor fled towards Bettiah. Shortly afterwards, the force under Major Caillaud and Miran set out in pursuit. On 25th June, the governor's army was defeated and retreated leaving behind their guns, a quantity of ammunitions and all their heavy luggages. The monsoon had set in, the Gandak was in flood; and Khadim Hussain failed to procure boats to cross it. He, therefore, fell back towards the hills, pursued by Miran and his English Commander. In the primeval jungles of Champaran, the Governor's forces lost their bearing and were dispersed in the dense forest. Before them was a big river, at their back was the relentless enemy. But fortune, however, smiled on them, because, Miran was killed by lightning when sleeping in his tent at a place near Bettiah. Major Caillaud moved the army before the fort of Bettiah, received the submission of the Raja and then returned to Patna. But the Bengal authorities had, however, not seen the last of Bettiah. Mir Kasim, who had been made the Subadar of Bihar and Bengal by Prince Ali Gauhar, who was crowned Emperor of India on some English dining tables in the opium factory of Patna, decided to secure the strong and strategic fortress of Bettiah; and to test the efficiency of the new regiments trained by his Armenion General Gurgin Khan. It was this General, who built the magnificent mansion on the Pirpahar hill, in the suburbs of Monghyr, between Monghyr and Sitakund. His ultimate object, however, was to establish complete control over the frontier districts of Bihar. Bahadur Ali Khan was given the command of the expedition. Bettiah was easily captured in March, 1762. Mir Kasim then availed himself of this opportunity, to remain away from the English in Murshidabad, on the pretext of establishing order in that region and to set out on an ill-conceived expedition against Nepal.

Early in January, 1763, the Nawab invaded Nepal. The grand army was led as usual by Gurgin Khan, though it was ill-equipped, badly planned and badly led. The bankruptcy of statesmanship in Mir Kasim, the most unfortunate Nawab of Bengal, is nowhere more evident than in this Nepal expedition. He had not calculated even the difficulties of terrain; and obstacles that his army would have to face in an unknown mountainous country. The possible factors that led him to approve of this doubtful project was most probably the desire to test his troops trained in European fashion before he fought the English. What is more, the cupidity of the Nawab had been roused by alluring reports that represented Nepal as exceedingly rich country abounding in gold and other valuables. The trade between Bihar and the trans-Himalyan regions that passed through Nepal was not a small inducement.

Gurgin Khan and his army entered the mountains of Nepal by the valley of the Kurra, while the Nawab remained at Bettiah. The unfortunate General reached up to Makhhanpur, which stood on the ridge dominating the valley of the Kurra. Here fate again dealt an unkind blow on the dreams of Mir Kasim and Gurgin Khan. After some early successes the Nawab's army was routed and made an unsuccessful and precipitate retreat to the bottom of the pass. A large number were killed during the retreat and the force lost almost all their guns and ammunitions. This decided the Nawab to withdraw. The Nepal expedition, not only caused a heavy drain on the resources of the Nawab, in respect of money and man power; but demoralised his army. The Nawab's own prestige was sorely affected.

In 1764, after the fateful battle of Buxar, the whole of Champaran passed with the rest of Bengal to the East India Company. But. Champaran, the land of the Janakas and hallowed with the memory of the Aryan sages, did not submit tamely and a campaign was necessary, before the authority of the East India Company could be established over this marchland of North-Eastern India. In the beginning of 1766, Sir Robert Barkar started from Bankipur with the major portion of his brigade to Bettiah, to reduce the "Chiefs", called refractory zamindars, who taking advantage of the troubles, had shut themselves up in their forts and refused to pay revenue to the Company. Some little resistance appeared to have been offered, but the futility of such ill-organized attempts being evident, within a few months Barker was able to subjugate Champaran.

The history of this period was not a peaceful one. It was essentially an age of transition; and coupled with the ignorance of the rulers, there were natural calamities like famine, pestilence, etc., to distract a hapless people. The Raja of Bettiah, who for generations was habituated in living in practically complete independence, did not find it easy to submit to the new masters, as well as to pay revenues regularly, which was never the custom with his ancestors. Therefore, he revolted and fought with the forces of the Company; was defeated, and fled to Bundelkhand for safety and his estate was confiscated. But the change was for the worse, as far as people of Champaran was concerned; and in 1771, Mr. Golding, the Supervisor of *Sarkar* Champaran, advised the Government for restoration.

Regarding the natural resources of Champaran Sir Robert Barker, in a letter to the Select Committee, dated from Camp at Rampur, 6th March 1766, gave a very favourable account of the resources of this district, with which even at the present time we are but scantily acquainted. He observes: 'Bettiah will, I think, be of considerable consequence to the Company. Its firs will afford masts for all the ships in India, which must produce a new and considerable trade with the other nations in India, as well as advantage to our own shipping. Gold and cinnamon are also here (the latter we gather in the jungles); timber as large as any I have seen; musk and elephants teeth; besides many other commodities I have not yet got the knowledge of.' The Select Committee reported this circumstances to the Court of Directors, stating that they looked upon it 'rather as an article of curious intelligence than mere prospects of advantage to the Company'. At the same time, they expressed their determination of pushing the discovery to the utmost advantage, if the advices received met with confirmation.

RELATIONS WITH NEPAL.

In the meantime important changes were taking place in the neighbouring state of Nepal. The age-old Newar dynasty was being swept away by a new race of people called the "Gurkhas", under Prithvinarayana. From immemorial times, this area had always been a border land, between the two countries, divided amongst the petty Rajas with their fortified castles. A chief possessing castles in the fastnesses of the hills, could also enforce contributions, by issuing out of it and carrying off booty from those who did not comply in the plains. Hence every hill Raja had a sweep, of the forest belt and low country attached to his estate, which he continually attempted to extend either by intrigue or by violence. With the advent of the Gurkhas a new situation had developed, as each Raja in the hills successively fell before them, they were exterminated and becoming heir to all their estates, the Gurkhas took up the claims and contests of the old hill Chiefs. The zamindars in the plain were unable to withstand these hill men. With some sort of national Government or even under a well organised central power, the matter could have been amicably settled, as has always been the case, whenever there was a strong authority to look after the interests of Champaran. Opportunities were not lacking for the unscrupulous officers of the East India Company to start a cold war with Nepal which had so far remained independent and what was more quite unamenable to the Company's ambitions.

One of these was the quarrel between the Raja of Bettiah, whom they had dispossessed and the Raja of Makhwanpur, for the possession of different portions of the *terai* and a part of the Simraon *pargana*. In 1763, Prithvinarayana having subdued the Raja of Makhwanpur claimed to have succeeded to his rights. The real motive of the British, however, was to penetrate into Nepal, in the search of trade which had been interrupted for some years in consequence of the subjugation of Makhwanpur. In 1767, the last Newar Raja of Kathmandu being very hard pressed by the Gurkhas, appealed to the British for assistance; and Mr. Golding, the British Agent, fearing that the success of the Gurkhas would ruin the trade with Nepal recommended that the opportunity should be taken to send an expedition to help the Newar Raja. The officers of the East India Company certainly could not miss such a golden opportunity and an expedition under Major Kinloch started to the relief of the king.

The British army advanced into the hills in October, 1767, but found that without a chain of forts to secure their communications with the plains, it was not possible to make any further advance.— What is more, having penetrated as far as Hariharpur, Kinloch was detained there by torrent, which carried away a bridge and raft which Kinloch had constructed. The delay exhausted the British supplies, while enervating climate started sickness amongst the soldiers and Kinloch had to return in December, the very time when he should have set out. The dovecotes of the East India Company in Calcutta fluttered, because, the Directors will not be convinced that the heavy expenses of the expedition was a *bona fide* expenditure. To recoup these losses, in January, 1768, Kinloch was ordered to occupy the whole *terai.*

In the meanwhile, the Gurkhas continued to present yearly to the British Government a large elephant as tribute for the cultivated low lands occupied by them until 1801 when this tribute was relinquished by a treaty at Danapur, by which the Nepalese agreed to the establishment of a Residency at Kathmandu. Champaran was the usual route for all such dealings. The alliance, however, dissolved in 1804 in consequence of alleged breach of faith and the alleged indignities suffered by the Resident similar to Kabul at a later date. He possibly considered himself as a greater authority than the ruling sovereign to whom he had been accredited. Frontier disputes added to the advantage of the British. In 1811, one Lakshmangir, the Gurkha Governor of Rautahat, crossed the frontier, seized the stockaded Kewaya and began plundering and making collections in the neighbourhood. The Raja of Bettiah's people resisted and in the fighting that followed Lakshmangir was killed. The Company's Government ordered an enquiry but before the investigating officer could reach Champaran, further encroachments were alleged to have been made. Commissioners were appointed by both the Governments to investigate all the frontier disputes; and Major Bradshaw was the British Commissioner with the instruction to insist on the restitution of all the villages seized by Lakshmangir. The condition was agreed to; but when he pressed to open the enquiry, the Nepalese Commissioner having been offended by Major Bradshaw refused to enter into any discussion with him, and suddenly returned to Kathmandu. Lord Hastings, thereupon, threatened forcible occupation of the lost territory if they were not evacuated by a fixed date; and the Gurkhas naturally having refused, the British occupied the villages in 1814. War was declared on 1st November 1814.

An arduous campaign ensued, but little fighting took place near this district. The plan of campaign provided for the main attack being delivered through passes between the great Gandak and Baghmati by a force of nearly 8,000 men, with a strong contingent of artillery, under General Marley; while another brigade was to follow this army and secure its depots and rear as it advanced into the hills. Before these forces took the field, Major Bradshaw, the British Commissioner, who was in military charge of the frontier and the disputed lands of Simraon, advanced against the Nepalese post of Barharwa prior to occupying the whole of the *terai*. The attack was successful, and the *terai* was evacuated by the Gurkhas and occupied by the British troops. The headquarters of the Champaran Light Infantry was fixed at Baragarhi and two other stations were established at Samanpur and Parsa. General Marley arrived at the frontier early in December, but he did little more than hold his position. He was staggered by the activity and enterprises of the Gurkhas, and was apprehensive for his train of heavy artillery which was coming up from Bettiah; and eventually he was superseded for incompetence.

On 28th November 1815, however, a treaty was concluded by General Ochterlony, in whose memory the Monument in the maidan at Calcutta was erected and the Nepalese at Sugauli. The ratification of the treaty, however, was withheld by the Nepalese Government and in 1816, General Ochterlony established his headquarters at Sugauli, with 20,000 men, divided into four brigades, one being directed to march through Ramnagar, while the main force under Ochterlony proceeded towards Makhwanpur. Before the superior fighting materials of the East India Company, the Nepalese had to yield; and in March, 1816, the Nepalese delivered the treaty of Sugauli duly signed and executed. By this treaty, the East India Company gained the *terai* between the Rapti and Gandak, excepting Butwal khas and was able to retain the portion between the Gandak and the Kosi which was already in their possession.

After this, till 1840, there was peace on the Champaran frontier. In this year a party of Gurkha troops under the command of an officer entered the Ramnagar territory, and issued a proclamation resuming the territory seven or eight miles wide and 25 to 26 miles in length which had been given to the Ramnagar Raja. Friendly remonstrances having failed, in October, 1840, the government of East India Company ordered the advance of a brigade under Colonel Oliver to occupy the territory by ejecting the Gurkha troops. The *darbar* reductantly agreed, the Gurkha troops were recalled and the villages restored. A corps of soldiers was, however, retained on the frontier till 1842.

After 1840 there had been great improvement in the Indo-Nepalese relationship. Barring a few minor boundary disputes no major incidents took place to disturb the friendly relations of the two Governments. The Resident of Nepal also played important part for conferring title of Maharaja Bahadur to Nawal Kishore Singh of Bettiah in 1844. Nepal played an important role during the movement of 1857—1859 for the restoration of British sovereignty in Bihar.

There are a large number of references in the old correspondence volumes showing that boundary disputes were common. This was so as the belt of the country in between Nepal and that portion of India was full of jungles and proper boundary marks had not been fixed and the courses of the rivers which often acted as the boundary changed their course. In April, 1844, it was reported by Mr. Yule, the *thiccadar* of Ramnagar (Champaran) that the Nepalese had taken possession of portions of Ramnagar and even realised rents. Due to change in the river course boundary pillars were upset. Resident Lawrence put great emphasis in relaying of the boundary between the two territories. Boundary disputes further arose in 1855, 1866, 1867 and 1877 especially due to the change of the course of the hill streams. In 1867 there was some complaint that the Nepalese had forcibly prevented the British subjects from cutting wood in a forest at the base of the Sumeshwar hills in Champaran district. The Magistrate of Champaran deployed a detachment of police to arrest the encroachers on the ground that Sumeshwar hills formed the boundary of the Champaran district. The matter was, however, settled up.

It would not be out of place to mention here that in early 1888 there occurred internal troubles in Nepal which led to refugees coming over to the bordering districts of India including Champaran. The *darbar* requested for the surrender of the Nepalese refugees who were connected with the recent disturbances in India. Letter no. 26, dated Simla, the 12th June 1888, from H. M. Durand, Secretary to the Government of India, Foreign Department, to the Resident of Nepal, indicates the line adopted by the British Government in India. The letter mentioned that "His Excellency wishes to maintain as far as possible an attitude of strict neutrality between the refugees and the party in power". As a result the refugees in Champaran and Darbhanga who were alleged to be fomenting disturbance in Nepal by their intrigue from India were pursued.

TRADE WITH NEPAL.

Trade relations with Nepal during the period were very close. One of the important trade routes from India to Nepal passed through the route entering the Nepal territory near Kutkenwa in Champaran. The volume of trade was considerable and carried on by pack-ponies, head-load and light carts. Timber used to be floated down the rivers.

From a letter, Fort William, dated 14th January, 1879, it appears that there was reciprocal understanding between the Government of Nepal and the Government of India for exchange of merchandise goods. The letter further mentions that the Government of India agreed to the incidence of Excise Duty levied in Nepal and that the incidence of duty on the articles on the Oudh frontier which were similar on the Bihar frontier was as follows :—

	Rs.	a.	p.
	Per cent.		
Exports from Nepal—			
Ghee	12	8	0
Edible grains	9	8	0
Wax	9	0	0
Spices	6	0	0
Imports into Nepal—			
Edible grains	9	8	0
Wheat	9	6	0
Ghee	12	8	0
Metals	7	2	0
Cotton	6	4	0
Spices	6	0	0

Regarding the incidence of Excise Duty, the Collector of Champaran reported that it was so light that on no account it will affect the trade of the two countries. *Foreign Department Secret E. Proceedings,* October, 1890, nos. 88—99, mentions that the amounts of imports and exports in Nepal were reported to be Rs. 1,15,22,935 and Rs. 1,48,88,873, respectively.

Postal.

The earlier postal link with Kathmandu and Calcutta was maintained through the district of Champaran.* It appears that *dak* line from Sugauli to Kathmandu was established for the purpose of keeping up correspondence with the Resident. For the first twenty-five years the carrying of *banghy* parcels even for the Residency establishment was forbidden. The course then pursued was to forward *banghy* parcels for non-Residency consignees by the runners. They carried the mail bag from Sugauli to Moorla and on their return carried the non-Residency *banghy dak* and this process was repeated till the destination at Kathmandu was reached. The route was through Moorla, Raghonathpore, Chapkalia, Tajpore, Semrabassa, Bhimphedi, Thankot and then to Kathmandu.

By the end of 1881 from Sugauli, India's postal links with Nepal had been extended from Ilam to Doty, to Kathmandu and to Kuty on the Tibetan frontier.

Indian postal system was extended to Kathmandu primarily because of administrative exigency in connection with the British Residency there. Motihari and Sugauli were the main clearing houses for the postal *dak* in Kathmandu where an European Postmaster was assigned. The postal system from the points in Champaran district to

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* *Foreign Political, June,* 1880, nos. 27—31.

Kathmandu worked directly under the charge of the Postmaster-General, Fort William. There were occasions of an attempted interference by the Resident of Kathmandu with the *dak* system from Motihari and Sugauli but the Postmaster-General held his own against the opinion of the Resident. The Magistrate at Champaran in 1838 was requested to take upon himself the additional burden of running the post offices. He, however, declined and Mr. Morang was posted to Motihari as the Postmaster.

The postal rate depended on the length of the journey. From a letter in 1841 it appears that from Sugauli to Allahabad a letter meant Rs. 5-4-0, to Benares Rs. 3, to Patna Rs. 1-8-0, to Gaya Rs. 3 and to Nepal Rs. 2-12-0.

The Postmaster of Motihari filled an important role in connection with the *dak* to Nepal. The Resident at Kathmandu occasionally used to address the Postmaster of Motihari. It appears that the Director-General of Post Offices of India asked the Postmaster of Motihari to adhere to his orders and arrangements and not to carry out Resident's orders.

After a long correspondence the Resident was informed that the Governor-General in Council saw no reasons to interfere with the existing arrangements by which the Nepal line was maintained from Champaran as a part of the Imperial post. The Director-General was, however, asked to meet the Resident's views as far as possible.

Nepal-Kosi Embankment.

The good relations with Nepal were also seen in Nepal's quick consent to a Kosi embankment in 1891. From the old correspondence volumes it appears that the necessity of controlling the vagary of the river Kosi was realised by the Government of India in the last quarter of the nineteenth century*. The Government of India made a lengthy correspondence with the Government of Nepal for approval to construct a *bund* in Nepal to keep the Kosi in its bed at the cost of Rs. 15,000†. The Prime Minister of Nepal agreed to the proposal as the *bund* was to protect the territory of Nepal for a length of 18 square miles from the ravages of the river Kosi. Unfortunately, there had been heavy rains in the third week of May, 1891, which made the construction of *bund* impossible.

MOVEMENT OF 1857—1859.

Champaran, during the movement of 1857—1859 like the other districts of the then Patna Division, was in a state of ferment. From a letter of the Maharaja of Bettiah addressed to Mr. Tayler, the Commissioner of the Patna Division it is evident that the people of

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* *Foreign Department, Proceedings External,* June, 1891, nos. 34—38.

† An extract from the demi-official letter, dated 19th May 1891, from the Hon'ble Sir Charles Elliot, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal to Secretary.

Champaran were seething with discontent. "I observe", he wrote to Tayler on June 9, 1857 "that some evil minded men have studiously given out unfavourable reports that Government have a design to convert their subjects to christianity, which has produced a panic among the people who have actually begun to revolt. I deny their assertions and most truthfully declare that Government have no such designs. The stories are mere inventions of bad men to serve their ends. Now nearly a hundred years the British are the paramount rulers of India, they have in no instance interfered with religion of our fore-fathers; on the contrary, they have allowed us a free exercise of our religious functions and they have further enacted a law that who even scoffs at one's religion or molests one in religious duties should be severely punished". The Maharaja wrote further: "I have proclaimed to my people through my several *tahsildars* the purport of the first paragraph of this letter and have assured them that they must soften their anxiety and fears, as Government have already taken prompt steps to punish the disturbers of the public peace by strong laws and that the disturbances created by the insurgents will soon be settled". The Maharaja was true to his words as he was a staunch supporter of the British Government during the movement of 1857—1859.

The repercussion of the Wahabi movement with Patna as its centre produced a great ferment throughout Bihar. The move of Tayler, the Commissioner of the Patna Division in detaining some prominent Wahabi leaders, produced a widespread commotion throughout the division including the district of Champaran.

There was also a strong under-current of disaffection towards the constituted authority in North Bihar due to a firm idea that the administrators and the European indigo planters were hand-in-glove and the cultivator had to cultivate indigo perforce to enrich the indigo planters. From one end of North Bihar to the other there were indigo concerns (*kothis*) within 10 or 15 miles of each other. The cultivators were put to various types of oppression. They had to part with the indigo at a low price while the planters and the middlemen made themselves rich at their cost. It was more paying for them to cultivate the high-priced food crops. The indigo *raiyats* had to pay a number of illegal taxes (*abwabs*). The indigo planters had their Planters' Association and the Bihar Light Horse, which was a sort of defence force consisting of the European and the Anglo-Indians of the district. The meetings of the indigo planters were frequently attended by the administrators. Sometimes the indigo planters were assisted by the administrators in the realisation of the illegal exactions. Under these circumstances, the cultivators naturally had an impression that they had little to hope for from the administrators where the planters were concerned.

The indigo planters and other Europeans in that part were perturbed in the month of June, 1857, due to apprehension of an outbreak.* Major E. S. Holmes of the 12th Irregular Cavalry, stationed at Sugauli, at the headquarters subdivision of the Champaran district, resorted to highly repressive measures to suppress the movement. We read in a letter from Tirhut, dated the 26th June 1857 : "Martial law has been declared throughout the district; and Holmes, at Sugauli, is hanging right and left mostly sepoys, returned from the scene of action laden with booty. Major Holmes declared martial law on his own authority and wrote to the Magistrate of Saran on the 19th June 1857, in a highly dictatorial tone : "My dear MacDonnel, as a single clear head is better than a dozen of confused ones in these times, and as military law is better than civil law in a turbulent country, I have assumed absolute military control from Gorakhpore to Patna, and placed under absolute military rule all that country including the districts of Saran, Champaran and Tirhoot. The Governor-General having requested me to write to him direct, I do so daily and have informed his lordship on this head. I now look all the Magistrates, of these districts to aid me effectually in preserving order and to carry out with strictness................ instruction.†

The Civil Officers concerned though objected to this assumption of arbitrary power by Major Holmes but in practice his instructions and measures were approved in general by the Government of Bengal. It is mentioned in the last District Gazetteer (1930) that "As soon as danger began to threaten Bihar, he wrote to Canning, expressing with great freedom and plainness, the view that stern and instant repression was the only policy for the times. Canning told him in reply that he was entirely wrong, and that his 'bloody, off-hand measures' were not the cure of the disease".

But Major Holmes was determined to follow his policy. Major Holmes was rather exasperating and this led four soldiers killing him and his wife in the evening of 26th July 1857.‡ The regiment then rose, cut down Dr. Garner, Mrs. Garner and one of their children, and Mr. Bennetts, the Deputy Postmaster, and burnt their bungalow. After plundering the treasury, the 12th Irregular Cavalry went off to the North-West *via* Siwan, where the Deputy Magistrate and the Sub-Deputy Opium Agent had a narrow escape**. Mr. Raiks, the Magistrate, left it, with the other civil officers and their families, and took refuge in a factory some miles away; but he returned almost immediately and did not abandon it, even on receipt of the Commissioner's order.

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* *Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I, By Dr. K. K. Dutta, page 23.

† *Ibid*, pp. 23—24.

‡ *Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I, By Dr. K. K. Dutta, p. 25. But the last *District Gazetteer* (1930) mentions the date as 26th July.

** Letter from E. A. Samuells to the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, dated the 25th September 1858.

On the 30th July martial law was declared not only in the northern districts of Champaran, Saran and Tirhut but also in the districts of Patna, Shahabad and Behar, where the movement had assumed a formidable shape. In Champaran, shortly afterwards Honorary Magistrates were appointed from among the indigo-planters, and authorised to raise small bodies of police for the protection of their immediate neighbourhood.

Many of the zamindars of Bihar, whose interests were at one with those of the Company naturally rendered assistance to the latter in the suppression of the movement. The Raja of Bettiah gave valuable service to the Company Government. The Company Government got great help from Nepal. The Raja of Nepal, Jang Bahadur, rendered invaluable assistance at a critical time and helped to restore order in Champaran. Towards the end of December Jang Bahadur with his Nepalese army arrived at Bettiah and on the 26th a fight took place at Sahibganj, five miles from Pipra, between the two regiments sent by Jang Bahadur and a party of rebels, who were completely defeated. On the same day a successful action was brought by Colonel Rowcroft at Sohanpur on the Gorakhpur frontier, and these successes had the effect of bringing peace in the north of the Ganga.

Some Mutineers were finding retreat in Nepal and it may be that some of the sections on the border were sympathetic to the Indian movement in spite of the Nepal Government being against it. On the 5th February 1858, the Resident of Nepal informed the Joint Magistrate of Champaran, the Magistrate of Tirhoot and the Deputy Magistrate of Siwan, that the Nepal *darbar* had decided to keep the mountain pass closed during the ensuing Shivaratri festival which was to commence on the 12th February. This was an obvious move to check the entry of the rebels into Nepal.

Stern measures were taken with the restoration of order. The planters came to their own once again. The Bettiah zamindar was given the title of Maharaja for his loyalty. The bid for throwing off the yoke was crushed for the time being. The movement in Champaran could not pick up the tempo that we see in some other districts in Bihar. The reasons are that the vested interests like that of Bettiah zamindary, the planters, the smaller zamindars were actively engaged in thwarting the movement. The help of Nepal was very timely and actually turned the tide of fortune for the British. The insurgents from Northern India had approached Rana Jang Bahadur that he should not side with "the beef-eaters" and that should he want he could take away the district of Saran (which included Champaran) and add it to his own kingdom. Samuells, the Commissioner of Patna Division, saw the Rana when he was camping at Bettiah and was shown the letter to the Rana regarding the offer of Saran. Rana Jang Bahadur informed the Commissioner that he had spurned the offer and would stand by the British. Nepal's help was the main reason for the quick restoration of order in Champaran.

FORMATION OF THE PRESENT DISTRICT.

The movement of 1857—1859 had disclosed that the district of Saran which included Champaran at that time was far too unwieldy and the far flung portion of Champaran could not be properly administered from Chapra, the district headquarters. Although Champaran was a part of Saran district a Magistrate had been stationed at Motihari in 1837 and in 1852 the subdivision of Bettiah was created with Bettiah as the headquarters. The later history of the district is in a way the administrative history. But a separate treatment of the nationalist movement in Champaran is indicated. It may, however, be mentioned here that the same administrative exigency saw to the creation of the Tirhut Division in 1908 which comprised the districts in Bihar to the north of Ganga including Champaran.

NATIONALIST MOVEMENT IN CHAMPARAN.

The roots of the nationalist movement in Champaran could clearly be seen in the economic currents in the district. The fertility of the land coupled with the fact that cheap labour was abundantly available early attracted the Europeans to the district. They took interest in trade and commerce of the district and actively participated in saltpetre, opium and indigo business. Their trade associations made them invest very large sum of money and they soon came to acquire vast landed properties within the district. This made them an important factor in the administrative history of the district. Any consolidation of lands and carrying of trade and commerce with a very great profit could only be done by exploiting the land, labour and the administration. It has been mentioned before that the European planters and business men soon came to acquire an enviable status and the common man could hardly distinguish a planter from an administrator. The main problem was in connection with indigo cultivation and indigo manufacture. It is necessary to give a brief history of indigo cultivation in Champaran.

Indigo was an indigenous product of the district but its cultivation was voluntary and confined to very small patches of land and the consumption was mostly internal before the planters came to the scene.

The British demand for Indian indigo revived after the American source was closed on the outbreak of the War of American Independence (1775—1783) and indigo became henceforth a profitable article of export of the English Company from India. "The article of indigo now bears", wrote Milburn in 1813,* "a distinguished rank in the list of Asiatic produce and may be considered the staple commodity of the private trade from India." A large number of indigo factories consequently sprang up, particularly in different parts of Bengal and Bihar. According to an official account of 1830 (Statement of Henry Shakespear, Judicial Secretary to the Government of Bengal), there were at that time about 1,000 indigo factories in the Bengal Presidency. In Tirhut no fewer than twenty-five factories had been started by 1803. Such factories were established also in the districts of Shahabad, Purnea, Bhagalpur and Santal Parganas.

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* *Freedom Movement in Bihar,* Vol. I.

In Champaran, the Europeans started indigo cultivation and factories in the lands which they obtained on leases, temporary or permanent, from the Bettiah Raj and Ramnagar Estates. Colonel Hicky established an indigo factory at Bara in 1813. Subsequently other factories sprang up at Turkaulia, Peepra, Motihari and Rajpore, and because of the factories Europeans began to settle also in the north-western part of the district. One of the reasons why indigo concerns had multiplied was that the Bettiah Raj became encumbered with a heavy debt, for liquidation of which its manager, Mr. T. Gibbon, raised a sterling loan of about 95 lakhs in England on the sole condition of substantive security. For this the Bettiah Raj had to settle portions of its Estate in perpetuity with some European factory owners in place of the temporary leases. The rent was utilised to liquidate the debt. The Ramnagar Estate in Bettiah subdivision also granted such permanent leases, and later on some of the European indigo planters purchased zamindary rights in certain villages. By the end of the nineteenth century about a lakh of acres of the best land in Champaran were under indigo cultivation and at the mercy of the European planters. By the end of the nineteenth century there were indigo factories at Barrah, Jagoulia, Mohowah, Gowandrah, Russelpore, Rajpore, Byreah, Kooriah. Moorla, Hardia, Loheareah, Bagaha, Motihari, Mullayah, Sirsealy, Peeprah, Pursa, Dokraha, Sathi, Seerla, Poornahee, Nawadah, Murpah, Turcowlia, Telhara, Lalseryiah, Rajghaut, Purrwah, Madhupore, Sugauli, etc.*

On the decline of sugar industry by about 1840 the European factory owners gave up sugarcane cultivation in North Bihar from that time and turned exclusively to the more paying concern of indigo plantation. The latter had already been a source of various abuses, and efforts of the Company's Government to restrain these proved to be ineffective. Lord Macaulay wrote near about 1840: "That great evil exists, that great injustice is frequently committed, that many *raiyats* have been brought partly by the operation of the law, partly by acts committed in defiance of the law, into a state not far removed from that of partial slavery is, I fear, too certain ".†

European indigo planters in Norh Bihar carried on indigo cultivation under two systems—(*a*) *zerait* and (*b*) *assamiwar*. Under the *zerait* system, indigo cultvation was under their direct management. They engaged tenant-labourers who were always ill-paid and were discontented. According to the *assamiwar* system, the factory chiefs had the indigo lands cultivated by tenants. The most prevalent method under this system was known as *tinkathia.* The other methods were *khushki* and *kurtauli.* The *kurtauli* method, though not extensively prevalent in Champaran, was highly prejudicial to the interests of the *raiyats.* The Commissioner of Patna observed in 1885 : " The *kurtauli* lease is a new institution dating from a very few years back............ There is growing up in our midst and in spite of our effors at beneficent legislation, a system under which the *ryot* mortgages his entire holding including even the very site of his house for a period probably extending beyond his own lifetime, redemption being contingent on the repayment of a loan; the ryot, to use the common expression, is selling himself body and soul into hopeless servitude "* In the *khushki* method, rather uncommon in Champaran, agreements were executed by *ryots* who were not tenants of the factory.

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* *History of Bihar* by Mindon Wilson.

† *Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I.

Under the *tinkathia* method, a tenant has to cultivate indigo on three *kathas* per *bigha* of his holding or the factory lands during a long period (20 years or even 30 years) and was formally entitled to get a price for it, according to the *sattas* or written agreements. It was calculated to promote the maximum interests of the planters at the cost of tenants.

Coercion on the cultivators for converting their lands into indigo-producing fields, extortion of forced labour from them under all kinds of threats, extremely meagre payment, inflictions of heavy fines for failure to grow indigo for any reason whatsoever, were some of the features of this oppressive system. Their occasional protests and cries for protection against the harsh treatment of the planters were wasted on the air.

The set-up of the tenancy in Champaran was such that a tenant could not walk with an umbrella unfolded within a mile of the *kothi* of the European planters. But it is this very oppression which brought out several martyrs who moved from village to village in 1907-1908 and a secret organisation was set-up in Champaran district to fight the tyranny of the planters. The meek tenant born and brought up in the environs of *tinkathia* and *sharahbeshi* system, according to which he had to raise indigo in the best portion of his land and pay an enhanced rent and innumerable *abwabs,* revolted against the tyranny of the planters. There was a mass refusal to grow indigo and cases followed. One Seikh Gulab was the prime mover and he raised a common fund for contesting cases and within a short time the movement against the Planter's Raj caught the whole of Bettiah subdivision. The *raiyats* at the instance of Seikh Gulab,

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* *Freedom Movement in Bihar,* Vol. I.

Sital Ray and others refused to grow indigo and they started sowing their own crops in the *tinkathia* portion of the field.*

The sudden revolt of the cultivators in 1907-1908 made the planters bewildered but the iron grip on the tenants tightened quickly and Seikh Gulab and others soon found themselves made into special constables by the administration. On the refusal of Seikh Gulab and others to work as special constables they were convicted under the Police Act but the Calcutta High Court set aside the conviction in March, 1908. Throughout 1908 Champaran was the butt-end of the agitation. Notices under section 144, Criminal Procedure Code used to be served in the morning and arrests were made in the evening on the ground that the tenants had disobeyed the orders of Government. About 200 respectable men of Bettiah were made special constables. The movement was further aggravated by the Muzaffarpur Bomb Case of 1908 and the phases of the Swadeshi Movement of Bengal.

The three leaders of this movement, Seikh Gulab, Sital Ray and Radhemal were singled out by the administration. Sital Ray, a respectable resident of Mathia village, had his house surrounded by policemen under Mr. Knight, Reserve Inspector, and the arrested and the hand-cuffed Sital Ray was taken to the house of the Subdivisional Officer, Bettiah, when he was having his tea with Mr. Lewis, Manager, Bettiah Raj. Ram Swarth Lal, a *munim* of Radhemal, was arrested although warrant of arrest was against his master Radhemal. They were all put to prosecution.

The causes of the oppressed *raiyats* were taken by the journals *Beharee,* Patna, *Amrita Bazar Patrika* and they flashed news regarding the mischief that had already been done and wanted that an open enquiry should be instituted as to why the people were revolting against the indigo cultivation.

At the instance of the planters Government deputed a Special Magistrate, Mr. Goode, to try the cases. No local lawyer was available to defend the accused persons while the prosecution was led by Mr. P. C. Manuk, Bar.-at-Law and Mr. Binoda Bihari Mazumdar, pleader of Patna. Mr. Govind Chandra Ray and Mr. Kali Das Bose of Muzaffarpur along with Mr. Donough, Bar.-at-Law, Calcutta, defended and the accused were all convicted.

That the administrators were somewhat at a league with the planters is substantiated by a historic meeting on 15th October 1908 at the house of the Manager, Bettiah Raj, followed by the district meeting in Motihari later in October, 1908. All the twenty-two indigo concerns of Champaran were represented in the meeting which was also attended by Mr. Garett, District Magistrate, Mr. Tanner, Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah and Mr. Kelso, Superintendent of Police. The meeting called for fire and blood and suggested that the situation was so serious because of 'outside influence'. They wanted a formidable punitive police force at the cost of the poor cultivators to be disbursed throughout the district and also that Act VI of 1907 should be made applicable for the entire district of Champaran.

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* *Gandhiji's First Struggle in India by* P. C. Roy Chaudhury (1955).

These punitive measures virtually established a reign of terror in the district. About 350 persons were convicted and put into prison. The Calcutta press including the *Statesman* took up the cause of the *raiyats*. The *Statesman* reviewed the situation in an editorial on 2nd December 1908 and exposed the hollowness of the theory that outside influences were at the bottom of all the trouble. In spite of the opposition of the planters and the local administrators, Government appointed Mr. Gourley, ex-Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah and the Collector of Champaran to enquire into the reasons of the outburst. Gourley's report was never published or discussed in the Council although a copy was made available to the Planters' Association.* A memorandum of the Planters' Association published in June, 1910, took account of some of Gourley's suggestions and adopted some amendments of the bye-laws and the rate payable for Java and for Sumatrana indigo was raised per acre. The Association also decided that no *farmaish* shall be levied upon any tenant and no land whatsoever shall be taken for *zirat* without a written agreement.

These solemn promises were, however, not fully ratified. In the memorandum of the Planters' Association (1910) it is mentioned that the Lt.-Governor of Bengal bringing the deliberations of the conference of the Planters' Association to a close in Darjeeling in 1910 said that "confidence has been reposed in the planters on the present occasion because they had always respected every confidence reposed in them in the past".

Gourley's report did bring some relief to the indigo cultivators but did not remove the root-causes. The planters continued to force the cultivators to grow indigo although they could get better profit by growing other crops. The cultivators went on paying a number of *abwabs* or illegal exactions by the *amlas* or subordinates of the Indigo Planters. Some of the *abwabs*** were :—

> "*Bapahi Putahi*—When the father or relative of a person dies and his land devolves by inheritance on him the factory

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* Mr. Gourley had sent along with his report two steel trunks and mentioned that they were his best evidence. The two steel trunks contained clods of earth with both paddy and indigo—indicating that the cultivators had been forced to grow indigo after they had sown paddy. The editor learnt this from Mr. A. G. K. Lal, Retired District Magistrate and Mr. L. B. Seal, Retired Deputy Magistrate who were closely associated as Assistant Settlement Officers with Mr. Sweeney, Settlement Officer, Champaran. Mr. Sweeney had given this out.

** *Gandhiji's First Struggle in India* by P. C. Roy Chaudhury, pp. 54-55.

does not allow him to take possession of it until he pays Rs. 5 per *bigha* to the factory.

Ghorahi Bhainsahi—When a buffalo or horse of the factory becomes old then the manager sells it by lottery and realises Re. 1 from each tenant.

Bungalahi—When the bungalow of the indigo concern has to be repaired, Re. 1 is realised from each tenant.

Hak Talbana—When the peon is posted on any tenant for any purpose, then Re. 1 is realised as *talbana*.

Phaguahi—For enjoying *Phagua* or *Holi* festival the tenant has to pay Re. 1 to the Factory Sahib.

Hakfarkhawan—This is realised at the rate of one anna per rupee on the rental paid.

Motorahi—If the factory owner goes in for a motor car the tenant should feel proud of the fact and they will have to pay Re. 1 per head for the privilege of having a car-owner as the boss."

Although the price of indigo had considerably fallen owing to the availability of synthetic dye the planters continued forcing the cultivators to grow indigo as the margin of profit was still not bad. The planters were spread throughout North Bihar and their Planters' Association was a very powerful organisation. The Bihar Light Horse, a Volunteer Artillery Force had come to be almost the second line of defence for their administration. Public life had not yet graded itself to a pitch that could go against the administrator's will. The zamindars found it more profitable to toe with the administrators. The top lawyers who could have given the lead were more keen to get their briefs looked after and earned money. The tenantry was on the decline morally and economically and there was no Seikh Gulab or Bikhari to organise them. But leadership was thrown up from unexpected quarters.

M. K. Gandhi had come back from South Africa and his achievements were widely publicised. One Raj Kumar Shukla*, an ordinary *raiyat* and indigo cultivator of Champaran, made up his mind to meet Gandhiji and unknowingly he was instrumental in bringing about almost a bloodless revolution. Raj Kumar Shukla attended the session of the Indian National Congress at Lucknow in December, 1916. He contacted Gandhiji and acquainted him with the details of indigo cultivation in Bihar and particularly in Champaran. He wanted Gandhiji to move a resolution on the subject. The acute mind of Gandhiji at once detected that here was a problem which required a personal probe and he did not want to be a party to move a resolution without a personal acquaintance with the facts. The sturdy Raj Kumar Shukla did not leave Gandhiji till he had extracted a promise from him for a personal visit to Champaran. Gandhiji was a silent spectator when Shri Braj Kishore Prasad of Darbhanga moved a resolution urging the Government the "desirability of appointing a mixed committee of officials and non-officials to enquire into the agrarian trouble and the strained relations between indigo *raiyats* and European planters and to suggest remedy thereof". The resolution was passed unanimously.

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* Gandhiji had described Shukla as the ignored, unsophisticated but resolute agriculturist who had captured him (Autobiography).

Gandhiji's autobiography and Dr. Rajendra Prasad's books "Satyagraha in Champaran" and "Mahatma Gandhi and Bihar" give the later developments. Gandhiji was met at Calcutta by Sukla and he started for Motihari on 9th April 1917. History was to be made by this visit of Gandhiji and the Champaran district was the venue of his first struggle in India. On his way to Motihari he had halted at Patna and Muzaffarpur.

The Government, however, did not like Gandhiji to probe into the problem under the plea that the Settlement Operations were investigating the matter. As soon as he reached Motihari he was served with a notice under section 144, Criminal Procedure Code. In the court he made a statement on the 18th April 1917 that he was to follow the voice of conscience and hence he would disregard the orders served on him*.

The case against him was withdrawn and Gandhiji was allowed to continue his great work. By this time he had collected round him a batch of men from outside Bihar and some from Bihar including Shri Rajendra Prasad, then a practising lawyer in Patna High Court, Shri Anugraha Narain Sinha, Shri Dharnidhar, Shri Braj Kishore Prasad, Shri Ramnavami Prasad, Shri Mazharul Haq and others. Gandhiji had also a number of associates from outside Bihar like Mahadeb Desai, Acharya Kripalani, C. F. Andrews, H. S. Pollock and others.

Hundreds of cultivators gave their statements. The camps of Gandhiji at Bettiah and Motihari were besieged by the villagers who would not go before the statements were recorded. Hundreds of men from other districts of Bihar and particularly from North Bihar rushed to Gandhiji with their own grievances against the lawfully constituted authorities. Gandhiji could manage to get away once to Gopalganj in Saran district to address a public meeting. He also presided over the Students' Conference at Bhagalpur. Gandhiji's visit and work in the villages of Champaran district sent a wave of enthusiasm and inspiration to the people who were thirsting for a selfless leader.

The Government clearly saw that the movement had to be stopped and the only way to stop it was to remove the evils in connection with indigo plantation. A Committee of Enquiry including

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* Quoted in *Gandhiji's First Struggle in India*, P. C. Roy Chaudhury (1955).

Gandhiji as a member was formed to investigate and report on the problem††. Gandhiji agreed to his membership on the condition that he "did not cease to be the *ryot's* advocate" and that if the result of the enquiry was not satisfactory he "should be free to guide and advise the *raiyats* as to what line of action they should take". The Committee came to certain distinct conclusions conceding the grievances of the .*raiyats*. The recommendations were put in the Champaran Agrarian Bill which was put before the Legislative Council and was passed as an Act. The long standing misery of the indigo cultivators was removed. For details B. and O. Act I of 1918 may be studied.

But the effects were far reaching*. It was a moral victory for the *raiyats* and for the first time the *raiyats* were made to feel that they counted in the country and if they could organise for truth the victory was sure. Gandhiji's first struggle in India experimented on the soil of Champaran district was a lesson to India. Champaran was the first laboratory and probably it will not be very incorrect to say that Champaran has been the spring board for India's independence three decades after. The technique followed by Gandhiji in Champaran was what attained later on the name of *Satyagraha*. It is here also that he gave the training to a few young men including Shri Rajendra Prasad who were later to throw their lot completely in his Non-Cooperation Movement and ultimately won freedom for India.**

"Mahatma Gandhi's stay in Champaran inspired his associates with noble ideals in several ways, and helped them to receive under his guidance an excellent training, which proved to be the most valuable asset for some of them in their role of leaders in the country's battle for liberty. He taught them to eschew their old prejudices about caste-rules, by pointing out to them that when they were engaged in public work they "became of one caste, namely, the caste of the co-workers". In narrating the story of this change Dr. Rajendra Prasad writes : "When we first reached Champaran many of us had servants, we had a cook also. Within a short time the number of servants was reduced and shortly afterwards there was one servant left. The result was that those who had not drawn one potful of water of a well or washed a small napkin began under the Mahatma's influence within a short time to help each other in bathing, washing clothes and cleaning utensils. In fact we used to do everything ourselves. To sweep the rooms and floor, clean the kitchen, to wash our own utensils, to carry luggage and other bundles from station and market—these and such other things we all used to do and without hesitation. After the removal of the cook Shrimati Gandhi used to cook food for all of us and used to feed us all with motherly affection. It was one of the results of Mahatmaji's visit that we ceased to look upon travelling in a third class compartment as a mater of indignity". The reaction on Gandhiji was also great. On the 6th March 1925 he had written to Shri Janakdhari Prasad: "I treasure the memory of the faithful co-workers of Champaran. I shall never have and never had a more faithful band to work with. If I had such a band throughout India Swaraj will not be long in coming to India."*

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†† Sir Frank Shy was the chairman. For details see *Gandhiji's Autobiography*.

* According to Dr. Rajendra Prasad in his "Mahatma Gandhi and Bihar" Gandhiji's visit to Champaran had a very great effect on every district in Bihar and particularly the districts of North Bihar. The Anti-Purdah Movement in Bihar sponsored by Braj Kishore Prasad was a direct out-come of Gandhiji's influence.

** Regarding his work Gandhiji had mentioned "I was face to face with God, Ahinsa and Truth" and felt it was an able experiment with truth (Autobiography).

The other side of Gandhiji's social work was to improve the condition of the villagers by eliminating their inherent weakness. He realised that the planters could never have gone to that length if the villagers were not so disorganised, ignorant and illiterate. The simplicity of the villagers of Champaran, who shed their fear complex and spoke openly against the planters and administrators, impressed Gandhiji. That was why he wanted his volunteers to take the programme of social education in the interior of Champaran and make the people literate and conscious of their rights and duties. Apart from starting schools he wanted that the villagers should lead a clean life and do work for themselves particularly for repairing village roads, keeping the villages clean, covering up the dirty pools, etc. For all this he wanted that his volunteers should lead them. Regarding this sort of social work Dr. Rajendra Prasad had written to his friend as follows :—

"Their (volunteers') work will be the most important and lasting and therefore it will be the final essential stage of the mission. They (volunteers) have to be grown up, reliable, hardworking men who would not mind taking the spade and repairing and making village roads and cleaning village cess pools and who will in their dealings with their landlords, guide the *raiyats* aright. Six months of such training cannot fail to do incalculable good to the *raiyats*, the workers and the country at large."

A number of schools were started at different places in the Bettiah subdivision. The first school was started at Barharwa, about 20 miles to the east of Motihari which was placed incharge of Baban Gokhale and his wife Avantikabai Gokhale and Gandhiji's son Devadas Gandhi. Another school was started at village Bhitharwa, about 40 miles north-west of Bettiah††. A *sadhu* gave a portion of his land for the school which was placed incharge of Somarji. Another school was started at Madhuban which was placed under Narhari Parikh, his wife Manibahen, Madhav Haribhai Desai and his wife Durgabahen. In these schools the emphasis was laid on both mental and moral development of children. But unfortunately this social work of Gandhiji remained unfinished for want of proper response from the people and the volunteers.

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* Quoted in Dr. K. K. Dutta's *History of Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. I.

†† This school was incharge of Kastura Bai Gandhi and S. J. T. Soman. The schoil was set on fire probably by men of the planters.

The Champaran episode, primarily humanitarian in its object, also fostered the cause of nationalism in Bihar. One of its effects was to infuse into the minds of the much oppressed peasants of Champaran a spirit of awakening which is a necessary pre-requisite for a national movement. Fight for social justice promotes political consciousness. " The Champaran struggle was a proof of the fact ", writes Mahatma Gandhi, " that disinterested service of the people in any sphere ultimately helps the country politically." Further, the Champaran struggle set an example of the wonderful efficacy of the means of non-violent *Satyagraha* for victory in a noble cause. Giving an account of the different passive resistance movements in India leading up to the Non-Co-operation Movement, Mahatma Gandhi had observesd : " The third in order came the Champaran struggle (undertaken in order to remedy the evils that had grown up connected with the indigo plantations). Here *Satyagraha* had actually to be offered. Mere preparedness for it did not suffice as powerful vested interests were arrayed in opposition. The peace maintained by the people of Champaran deserves to be placed on record. I can bear witness to the perfect non-violence of the leaders in thought, word and deed. Hence it was that this age-long abuse came to an end in six months ".

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT.

Champaran and the whole of Bihar had already been enchanted by Gandhiji. It is only natural that Bihar would rally round him when he sponsored the *Satyagraha* and non-cooperation movement in the wake of the Montagu Chelmsford Report in 1919. Mahatma Gandhi made a whirlwind tour in Bihar in 1920 on the eve of the Non-Cooperation Movement. Rajendra Prasad was his chief lieutenant for the Province. The *Satyagraha* and Non-Co-operation Movement was successfully launched in Champaran under the able leadership of Shri Gorakh Prasad, Shri Bipin Bihari Verma, Shri Prajapati Mishra and others. Many courted arrest. Since then the men of Champaran fully associated themselves with the different phases of Gandhiji's movement. When the Simon Commission reached Patna on the 12th December 1928 a large number of demonstrators came from Champaran district and offered a full-throated protest and shouted the slogan " Simon, Go back ". Dr. Rajendra Pd. had given the lead.

The Indian National Congress in Calcutta in 1928 passed a resolution on constructive programme including pohibition of liquor and other intoxicants, boycott of foreign cloth by advancing and stimulating production of handspun and handwoven *khaddar,* removal of untouchability, etc. At Motihari a *chamar* joined a *katchi* dinner, arranged in the house of a *kalwar* with men of Brahman, Bhumihar

Brahman, Rajputs, Kayastha and some other castes.* The province of Bihar had its own Provincial Board to control and carry on the activities of the *Hindustani Seva Dal*. Shri Bipin Behari Verma of Champaran was one of the members of the Board. Four camps were opened at Bettiah, Myanatanr, Nawalpur and Malahi in the district of Champaran for the training of the volunteers. Champaran took the lead in organising Thana Committees of the Indian National Congress.

On the 4th October 1928, the twenty-first session of the Bihar Students' Conference was held at Motihari. In the unavoidable absence due to illness of Professor Vaswani, the President-elect, Shri Rajendra Prasad read his address.

The revolutionaries of Bengal were also trying to spread their cult in Champaran. There were several dacoities where they were suspected, and the expression "political dacoities" came into vogue in Bihar also. The dacoity at Maulania in Champaran took place on the 7th June 1929. The Maulania incident had been preceded by some other such cases in Champaran district. As regards the Maulania case it was stated in *Police Report* of 1925†: "The political suspects of Bettiah Shri Phanindra Nath Ghose and Shri............ Banerji, who had been absent from their homes on that night and were wanted in connection with the Lahore Conspiracy case, were arrested and one of them confessed having arranged the dacoity in order to obtain funds for revolutionary party. Of the eleven men alleged to have taken part in the outrage one is accused in the Lahore Conspiracy Case, two were made approvers, five are still absconding and the remaining three were sentenced to ten years' rigorous imprisonment under section 396, I. P. C. An appeal has been referred to the High Court." Shri Jogendra Shukul, one of the most prominent leaders of the revolutionary movement in Bihar, whom the police then considered to " be the principal absconder in the Maulania dacoity in Champaran in 1929 ", was arrested by the Saran police. Jogendra Shukul was sentenced to ten years' rigorous imprisonment.

THE SALT SATYAGRAHA AND THE CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT 1930—1934.†

Champaran fully supported the Civil Disobedience Movement under leadership of Mahatma Gandhi in 1930. Shri Jawaharlal Nehru made a whirlwind tour of Saran, Champaran and Muzaffarpur districts from 31st March to the 3rd April.

In the Champaran district, the Salt *Satyagraha* was started on the 6th April 1930 under the leadership of Shri Bipin Bihari Verma,

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* Dr. K. K. Dutta's *History of Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. II.

† Dr. K. K.. Dutta's *History of Freedom Movement in Bihar*, Vol. II has been mostly followed for this section.

President, Champaran District Congress Committee and the Chairman of the Local District Board. There was much enthusiasm in the town when the first batch of volunteers began their march and Shri Rajendra Prasad gave them a hearty send off. Salt law was broken on the 15th April in several thanas of the Champaran district, namely, Jogapatti, Motihari, Dhaka, Sugauli, Govindganj, Raxaul and Bettiah. The leaders working in the different thanas were arrested by the police. Shri Bipin Bihari Verma and Shri Ram Sunder Tewari were sentenced to one year's simple imprisonment and the other 15 leaders to six months' simple imprisonment each. But the arrest of the leaders enhanced popular enthusiasm and on the very first day of *Satyagraha,* salt worth Rs. 80-14-0 was sold. As a mark of protest against the leader's arrest spontaneous *hartals* were observed at Motihari and Bettiah. On the 17th April again several persons courted arrests. Repression failed to check the progress of the *Satyagraha* and salt began to be manufactured on a mass scale in a large number of villages in the district.

The widespread arrests of leaders failed to check the progress of the movement. Apart from salt *Satyagraha* the Indian National Congress decided to boycott British goods and non-payment of chaukidari-tax. The Bihar Provincial Congress Committee reviewed the progress of the movement for the non-payment of chaukidari-tax till the end of July, 1930, and held that Champaran led in the non-payment of chaukidari-tax. The five thanas of Sugauli, Govindganj, Dhaka, Jogapatti and Majhaulia had taken up this programme. The Mina Bazar at Bettiah was successfully picketed and in Sugauli thana *panchayats* were working exceedingly well as a result of which no case went to law courts for some time.

The Government had taken possession of *Satyagraha Ashram* of Adapur (Champaran) without declaring it to be unlawful organisation. The inmates of Adapur *Ashram* were mercilessly beaten and much of the property of the *Ashram* was destroyed. During the first week of January, 1931, several Congressmen, including active workers, and organisers, were arrested from Bettiah, Chuhari, Chainpatia, Chamainia, Narkatiaganj and Sikta. The failure of Gandhi-Irwin Pact and the Round Table Conference had their repercussion in Champaran also. The situation at Motihari on the 26th January, 1932 calls for a particular mention. The police had taken possession of the Congress Office at Motihari. But on the *Independence Day* in 1932 the people of the Champaran district assembled in thousands in the open space in the compound to take the independence pledge. The police made use of *lathi* and opened fire in consequence of which several people were killed and many were injured.

The other notable event in the history of Champaran was the visit of Mahatma Gandhi to Motihari on the 14th March 1934 in connection wih the devastating Earthquake of Bihar, 1934. His visit infused a new hope and inspiration to the people in the midst of a great cataclysm. In Champaran also the Central Relief Fund was formed under the presidentship of Prajapati Mishra to alleviate the suffering of the people.

The years 1935—1939 were marked by a new political development in Champaran. Shri Bipin Bihari Verma was elected to the Central Legislature. In the Provincial Assembly soon the Congress secured majority of seats. The first Congress Ministry was formed in Bihar in 1937. The year 1939 witnessed the fifth session of the All-India *Gandhi Seva Sangh* at Brindaban in the Champaran district from the 3rd to the 8th May, 1939. Mahatma Gandhi and Shri Rajendra Prasad, the Congress President had addressed the function and exhorted the people the importance of *Ahinsa* (non-violence).

The resignation of the Congress Ministry in Bihar in 1939 did not depress the people of Champaran who were by then overwhelmingly Congress-minded. The people followed the later phases of the political struggle with interest. The 'Quit India' movement of Gandhiji in 1942 followed by the arrest of the All-India leaders on the 9th August 1942 had its effects on Champaran also.

During the "August Revolution" railway lines were breached near Jiudhara and telegraph wires were cut. National flags were hoisted on the Government buildings at Motihari. On the 15th August, a large number of people, while attempting to attack the court buildings at Champaran, were dispersed by a furious *lathi* charge. The National flag was hoisted that day on Adapur and Ghorasahan police-stations. At Bettiah on the same day telegraphic communications were cut, train services were dislocated. The Bar and Mukhtears' Associations decided to boycott courts from the 17th August. A platoon of British infantry reached Champaran from Muzaffarpur in the evening of 16th August. On the 18th August, the Mehsi railway station was attacked and its booking office wrecked by a mob. Several police-stations were raided and occupied by the people. The movement had become a mass movement.

The Government adopted repressive measures to crush the movement. Besides indiscriminate arrest of persons by the police, the British troops moved from one centre to another with their Bren-guns. The Adapur *Ashram* was burnt down by an European factory owner of the area. Shri Shyam Lal Raut was arrested at Panchpokharia near Adapur. The villagers tried to rescue him, whereupon Mr. Meyrich, the factory-owner, opened fire and killed one Shri Yadu Raut and injured Shri Janak Raut and Shri Guguli Chamar. At Chauradano two persons died as a result of firings. The soldiers went to Raxaul and committed ruthless atrocity. On the 23rd August they fired at a mob at Mehsi and killed some men. Fire was opened twice at Bettiah as a result of which several persons were killed. On the 1st October, they opened fire in some villages in the Dhaka police-station*. Besides infliction of corporal punishment and large scale imprisonment a sum of Rs. 94,500 was imposed as collective fines till 21st November 1942 and that of collection was Rs. 41,069-8-3.

So far as the constructive aspect of the Revolution is concerned, it may be mentioned that Govindganj thana in the Champaran district witnessed people's rule for about a month under what was called the "*Rishi Dal*". Shri Ramashraya Dubey had the leading role in organising it. He was the head of the Defence Organisation. Shri Narsingh Dubey was incharge of postal work, and Shri Parasnath Verma was entrusted with the Publicity Department. Muhammad Tahir led the party meant for causing dislocation.

After the Revolution of 1942-43 the events were moving in a dramatic rapidity. The Interim Government was formed in 1946. On August 15, 1947, India became independent. It was a matter of significance to this far flung district of Bihar which had a particular role in the political bid under Gandhiji.

APPENDIX I.

MONUMENTS OF ARCHITECTURAL AND HISTORICAL IMPORTANCE IN CHAMPARAN.

Champaran, though least explored, has many unique features in its ancient buildings. Their contributions to our knowledge of ancient Indian art and architecture are not insignificant. It is a pity that its priceless cultural heritages are decaying. *Stupas* happen to be one of the principal features of the early Buddhist Church architecture. Originating from simple burial mound or tumuli it was admittedly pre-Buddhistic in character. The evidence furnished by the *Mahaparinirvana Sutta* unmistakably proves that Lord Buddha was indicating an existing custom universally practised in ancient India. Very soon, however, by force of circumstances, it became divided into two classes—Commemorative and Memorial. The latter class sometimes contained portions of the cremated remains of the *Tathagata*. Later on, the same honour was extended to his disciples, e.g., Sariputta and Mahamoggalana, as at Sanchi. In course of time, custom and usage evolved a theory that a meritorious act for the devout was to erect a small *stupa* at the holy place he was visiting. These are known as votive *stupas*. In course of time large *stupas* were also erected over small clay *stupas* or clay tablets. In the former the Buddhist-creed was stamped at the bottom while the latter were stamped with the images of Buddha, *Bodhisattvas, Manjusris* and *Avalokitesvaras*. Such structures have been found at Nalanda. The main function of the *stupa,* however, was to symbolize the passing away of Buddha. It would be wrong, however, to assume that Buddhists alone erected *stupas* in ancient India. They were raised by Jains and Hindus too.

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* According to Government estimate. 12 persons were killed and 44 wounded as a result of military firing in the district of Champaran from 10th to 24th August 1942. Subsequent enquiries have revealed that the numbers were higher. Total number of arrests was 653, jails 418 and the number of sentences of whipping 6. (Dr. K. K. Dutta's *History of Freedom Movement*, Vol. II).

The *stupa* was originally a solid hemisphere, or rather half of the hemisphere which was known as *anda* (अन्ड), usually raised on one terrace and invariably surmounted by railing called *harmika* (हर्मिका). From this issued the shaft of the crowning umbrella, known as *chhatra* (छत्र). All around the *stupa* was a circumambulatory passage (प्रदक्षिण पथ), which was generally surrounded by railing (वेदिका). The earliest *stupas* were hemispherical in form wih a low platform around them; while the later *stupas* had increasingly cylindrical forms. The later examples were generally very ornate, while the base-terraces and the umbrellas on the top were multiplied.

The most remarkable *stupa* in whole Champaran district, nay in India, is that at Nandangarh. The local people used to regard it as a fort, till the excavators' spade revealed the long hidden secret in 1936. Actually, however, the fortified city ruins lie all around it; in the eastern corner of which the *stupa* is situated. Erected on polygonal base, with numerous projecting and re-entrant angles, this huge *stupa* was a mid-way between terraced temples and Burmese pagodas. The centre of the *stupa,* called 'core' in archæology, was filled with earth and yielded a large number of burnt clay figurines, generally called 'Terracottas', few Punch Marked coins, cast copper coins of first century B. C., which is possibly the date of the earliest *stupa* erected on the spot. Further evidence pointed out that the present *stupa* was not merely built over this earlier structure which is even now 12 feet in height and was also polygonal in ground plan; but over which was erected an altar possibly in the fourth century of the Christian era.

The neighbouring village of Lauriya has, however, *stupas* of other kinds unique in themselves. These are three rows of 15 *stupas,* each row is more than two thousand feet in length. The first begins near the inscribed pillar of Emperor Asoka and runs east to west, while the two, though parallel to each other, runs at right angle to the first group. In 1904-05, four of these mounds were excavated by late Dr. T. Bloch, a German Scholar, then Superintendent, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle, Patna. Bloch was a pioneer in these matters and under a misapprehension labelled the mounds as Pre-Mauryan; and what is more as Vedic burial mounds. But subsequent excavations have disproved his theories. They had burnt brick base, while two had facing of brick in two super-imposed tiers. A. Ghosh, the present Director-General of Archæology, India, is right in thinking that the so-called layers of yellow clay were nothing but sun dried bricks mixed up with husks and straw. In 1945, Sir R. E. Mortimer Wheeler, the then Director-General of Archæology, directed a survey of ancient bricks with particular reference to their sizes, ingradients and age.

Nandangarh is, however, not the only place in Champaran district which has a *stupa*. Chankigarh or Jankigarh, one-fourth mile east of the village of Chanki, might also be a *stupa,* while the elevated mound all around it might be the ruins of the monasteries, which excavation alone can prove.* The mounds known as *Raja Bena-ka-Deora,* two miles to the south-west of the village of Kesariya, has also a *stupa* and monastery. Sagardih, three miles from Pipra Railway Station, is also a similar site. Architecturally, therefore, Champaran is the proud possessor of many alleged *stupas* and monasteries. Kesariya, for example, with its *anda* on a raised platform, is similar to that of Mohenjodaro, below which R. D. Banerji found the remains of the copper age culture of the ancient Sindhu (Sind) and Sauvira (Beluchistan) countries†.

In addition to the *stupas* one of the greatest importance of Champaran is due to the existence of several inscribed or uninscribed pillars of the Mauryan period. No other district in India has contributed so many. It has been said of Mauryan art, that the columnar architecture, single columns with foliated capitals and their crowning animals sculptures are the only specimens which enable us to form an appreciation. The remains of Mauryan art and architecture, complete or fragmentary, belongs to what is now coming to be recognised as the 'Imperial Pataliputra School' introduced in India by Asoka, if not by any predecessor of his. In fact, it is one of the earliest phases of what late R. D. Banerji called "Pataliputra School". This school has one great quality—uniformity in style, technique and material. Their technique, which is still unparalleled in India, gains in merit by the use of some kind of abrasive, by which they were enabled to impart a lustrous polish on the sandstone of Chunar. Wherever, remains of this school has been found, they have been uniformly of one material, the buff sandstone of Chunar. Here is no art like Kushana or the "Eastern Indian School of Mediæval Sculptures" confined within strict geographical limits. By no stretch of imagination can we call it provincial. In all its aspects it was imperial.‡

"The Mauryan Empire was an imperishable achievement. Nevertheless, it has left a legacy of problems which are so complex that any of its cultural traits requires considerable study. In fact, how much of it was its own and how much was alien we shall never know. The Mauryans appear on the political stage of India at the fag end, when emperors and empires seem to have gone out of fashion. After their downfall, for long and tedious centuries, we have no empires; except kingdoms of some descent extent glorified as empires. If the other empire builders of Asia took the familiar role of political conquest, massacre, subjugation, violation of temples and transport of the gods of the defeated people as trophies of victory to the capitals of the conquering nation, Indian genius gave a new interpretation to imperialism at this age. No marching army clashed in sanguinary battles to drench the mother earth with blood and tears of the martial elements in both the populations. No war widows, no orphans, no maimed ligion remained as pitiful testimonies to India's imperialistic ambitions. No fifth column, silently working as an essential element in the gigantic military machine, disrupted the unity amidst nations. For Asia, a new ideal was evolved. Asia was conquered by its message of peace, of fraternity and equality. India's empire was established in the hearts of men and women. Its seers and philosophers went forth to conquer by message of peace and good-will. Bold missionaries crossed snow-capped Himalayas and wide deserts to preach the gospel of salvation, with the result that in the major portion of Asia, India became the land of pilgrimage. Its edicts and dispensions, its teaching and learning, were sought for, not under duress, not due to political subjugation; but due to their admitted spiritual superiority. India ruled not with the rod and the sword, but with the message of resurrection and ultimate salvation. India was held not in awe and fear, but in respect and veneration. Down we go through the ages, that quality of Indian imperialism is never lost sight of. Colonies were established not for the exploitation of raw materials to emasculate the resources of the people, but to nourish, to revitalise the native cultures, to encourage faith and eternal hope. India's should lay refulgent before the rest of Asia*."

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* This is a hypothetical assumption.

† J. H. Marshall's—*Mohenjodaro and Indus Valley Civilization,* Vol. I, fig. 9, p. 116.

‡ A. Banerji's—*Mauryan Sculptures in Benares. Roopa-Lekha,* Vol. XXIV (1953), pp. 11—21.

This context of the cultural and political conditions in the Near East explains the origins of Mauryan art. James Fergusson was first to moot the Persepolitan origin (*Indian and Eastern Architecture,* 1910, Vol. I, pp. 58—69). The late Sir John Marshall found Hellenic workmanship on the Sarnath capital, a view which has received support from Bachhofer. (*The Monuments of Sanchi,* Vol. I, pp. 90 ff). Mr. P. Brown has tried to draw our attention to the lion headed spouts from Balbeck (*History of Indian Architecture,* First Edition, Vol. V, figs. 1 and 2). The comparison, however, requires to be made with the lion's head found in the ruins of Ninevah to realise the common western Asian heritage of Indian and Achamænid arts.

The re-examination of the Persepolitan ruins, and researches of Dr. Earnest Herzfeld, have thrown fresh light on the technique and qualities, as well as origins of ancient Iranian art. It shows, according to Herzfeld, that the Iranians had entered the stage only a fey centuries earlier, but their art was not the commencement of a particular regional style. It was simply the continuation of the art of the older nations.† The ancient Achamænid art descended from Median and that again from Urartean and that again from Anatolian. In fact, Mauryan art seems to have been the last example of the plastic activity of the Near East, transplanted on the Indian soil when Persepolis lay in ashes.‡

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* A. Banerji—*Ibid,* p. 14.

The soul of Mauryan art is its symbolism. Unless one appreciates the inner significance, he fails to appreciate the message of the art. The symbolism to this people was not a meaningless device, a mere object of veneration through the idle priesthood. The grammar of this symbolism has, however, been lost, with the result that we miss their significance. Champaran, however, has the unique privilege of possessing four example of free standing pillars of the Mauryan period, three of which are inscribed with the pillar edicts of Emperor Asoka. They consist of a slightly tapering column with a foliated capital on the top, surmounted by a bull and a lion at Rampurwa and single line at Lauriya. The foliated capital consists of a Lotus, about whose identity the dust of controversy has not yet settled. The main dispute between the scholars has been whether it was the bell or the lotus. At that time, it was argued, that no lotus with ovoid petals is known. But there is a variety of white lotus, which is characterised by the ovoid sepals and petals with rounded ends; and it is felt that the morphology of Asokan capitals possibly suggest this variety.

Lauriya Araraj is a a large village situated some 16 miles west of Motihari on the road to Govindganj thana. There is a pillar, locally known as Laur or *Bhim Sen-ki-Lathi.* It is 36 feet 6 inches in height, with a diameter of 41.8 inches at the base and 37.6 inches at the top. The portion remaining underground was left roughly dressed. The first six of the pillar edicts of Asoka, in well preserved and neatly engraved characters, were inscribed on it divided into two columns with straight margins between. The portion of the east contains 23 lines and that to the west 18 lines. The column is thickly dotted with numerous irregular scratches and small round holes darkened by whether, looking like shot holes. The next pillar is to be found in the village of Lauriya 15 miles north-west of Bettiah and locally known as *Laur Baba* or *Bhim Sen-ki-lathi.* It is surmounted by lion capital. The shaft of the column is 32 feet 9 inches in height. The diameter at the base is 35.5 inches and at the top is 26.2 inches. Immediately below the capital, there is a circular depression, on the north-east side, which is supposed to have been made by a cannon ball. The capital is 6 feet 10 inches in height. The pillar contains numerous names of visitors and a Persian inscription in *Nasta'liq* characters mentioning 1071 A. H. (1661 A. D.); and Aurangzeb-Alamgir. Rampurwa is an obscure village, situated about 2 miles south-west of Gaunaha station on the North Eastern Railway. Two pillars were set up here, one of these had a lion capital and measures 44 feet 10 inches in length, of which 8 feet 10 inches were left roughly dressed, because, it was intended that this portion would remain underground. On the top there is a mortice hole which contained a barrel-shaft bolt of copper. The capital and this bolt are now in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. About the middle of the column the pillar edits of Asoka are found inscribed. The second pillar broken into two large and several small pieces was originally 43 feet 4 inches in length and had a bull capital, which is now displayed in the portico of the Durbar Hall of the Rastrapati Bhavan, at New Delhi.

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† E. Herzfeld's *Iran in the ancient East,* 1941, page 274.

‡ A. Banerji's *Origins of the Imperial Pataliputra School—Journal of Indian Museums,* Vol. VIII, pp. 58 ff.

Simraon, a village situated on the north-eastern boundary of the district, 6 miles north of Purnahia Factory, is one of the holiest of holies of mediæval Bihar. It was the capital of the Carnatic dynasty of Mithila, whose glories went out in shame and disaster at the hands of Ghyas-ud-din Tughluq*.

But the major portion of the city ruins lie within Nepalese territory. The city was possibly in the form of parallelogram surrounded by an outer and inner wall, 14 and 10 miles in length and breadth, respectively. On the east side, however, traces of walls and seven ditches are traceable. The fort ruins at Sitakund is another unsolved problem of Champaran's archæology. It is 10 miles to the south-east of Motihari, and half a mile to the north of Madhuvan, on the Burhi-Gandak River. The fort is 450 feet in height, with large round bastions at the corner and middle of each face. The technique of building these walls is known to Indian archæologists as " double wall ". This has been found also at Biharshariff in Patna district, the site of ancient Uddandapura. In this method the military engineer entrusted with the task, built two separate walls, either of brick or stone, parallel to each other, and at a certain distance. Then he filled up the intervening space with rubble, earth or anything that was available. The thickness was a measure to prevent breaching by engines, ballistae and elephant heads. In early times Sitakund fort must have been a place of great strength when gunpowder was not used. Similar forts are met with at Unchdih, Vedivan, etc.

The most intriguing and least explored site, however, is the fortified ruins on Sumeswar hill. The Sumeswar hill is indeed a part of a long range of hill system which under different names run the whole length of Nepal. This peak overlooks Mauri valley; and from its top a grand-stand view of the snowy peaks of the Himalayas can be had. Hills after hills, peaks after peaks, wearing the coronet of snow and a tangled mass of rocks, jungles, ravines, glens and gorges below, rise in all their majesticity before human vision. The fort which is now in ruins, stands on the edge of a precipice, with well-defined remains. Reservoirs, cut out in solid rocks, like Chandan Sahid hill at Sasaram are met with. To the east of the fort, a temple bell of extreme sweetness of tone, greatly venerated by the local people, exists. In dating the ruins, one has to be extremely circumspect, because as late as 1814-15, there was a hill fort here, to command the Sumeswar pass.

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* Cunningham's--*Archaeological Survey Reports*, Vol. XVI.

Mediæval Champaran has left a series of temples, evolution of whose style has never been attempted. The advent of the Turco Afghans brought about a state of affairs, whose existence is undeniable. Erection of Hindu temples practically ceased to exist. The masons and the architects even if they were permitted to remain Hindus, within few centuries lost their knowledge of erecting temples with high towers. The demand for mosques, *Khanquahs* and *Idgahs* increased. The next great problem was to comouflage the Hindu temples so that they will not be easy prey to Muslim vandalism. The shrine of Jalpeswar, a hamlet, 11 miles distant from Jalpaiguri town, is an example*. It is a temple of Siva and has enjoyed importance for various reasons. It is a shrine which underwent many vicissitudes through the passing years. Local people hold that to avoid the attention of Kalapahar, this temple was designed as a mosque and the deity was preserved in a deep big hole. The dome of the Subhadra Mai's temple and the double domes of one of the Vedivan temples were built possibly for this reason. It is necessary to bear in mind this extremely important structural transformation, that Hindu temples in Bihar and Eastern U. P. underwent, to prevent future misunderstandings, feelings and tensions. There is a deserted structure at Kishenganj on Kathalbari Road, in the district of Purnea, over which a dispute had arisen between the local Hindus and Muslims as to whether it was a mosque or a temple. The ogival back arch which had no structural necessity, and the dome were the points of dispute. There is a small temple, with a domical roof, on the Rajgir-Gaya Road, immediately below the Handia hill at a place called Chormagarh, in Gaya district which is an exact prototype of Kishanganj temple. Bihar has another type of temple towers in Tirhut which is almost like the conical roofs of mud and wattle huts. The history of this type of hut shaped towers, goes back to fifteenth century A. D., at least, as is proved by the roof of 'Raja-Rani temple', near Kharagpur in the Monghyr district.

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* The Shrine of Jalpeswar—*Modern Review*, Vol. CIV, no. 2, p. 131 ff.

CHAPTER III.

PEOPLE.

In the early decades of British administration the present district of Champaran was included in and administered along with the present district of Saran from Chuprah, the headquarters of the district, and was known as Sarkar Saran. Champaran was separated and received the status of a district with headquarters at Motihari (previously commonly described as Moteeharee) in 1866.

An experimental census was done in the Lower Provinces of Bengal by H. Baverly and his report was published from Alipore Jail Press, Calcutta in 1870. This experimental census for Champaran was conducted at two places only, namely, Motihari and Bettiah and recorded a population of 1,735 and 7,248, respectively.

The first regular census was taken in 1872. The statistics below show the population of the Champaran district as recorded at the different census years from 1872 :—

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Variation.	Percentage variation.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1872	7,37,529	7,03,286	14,40,815	..	..
1881	8,70,627	8,50,981	17,21,608	+2,80,793	+19.5
1891	9,36,135	9,23,330	18,59,465	+1,37,857	+8.0
1901	8,85,607	9,04,856	17,90,463	—69,002	—3.7
1911	9,42,012	9,66,373	19,08,385	+1,17,922	+6.6
1921	9,68,478	9,72,363	19,40,841	+32,456	+1.7
1931	10,80,956	10,64,731	21,45,687	+2,04,846	+10.6
1941	12,13,074	11,84,495	23,97,569	+2,51,862	+11.7
1951	12,67,406	12,47,937	25,15,343	+1,17,774	+4.9

The first census of 1872 was extremely unpopular. It was thought that the census was a preliminary to a poll-tax, and that Government wanted to send out a part of the ever-growing population to work in the Government gardens at Mauritius. It was also given out that Government wanted to select some men and train them as soldiers in Calcutta as there was every possibility of the Russians invading India.

The census of 1881 showed an increase of 19.5 per cent. This large increase by itself cannot be said to be natural. But it has to be remembered that the census of 1872 could not have been very efficiently carried out because of popular apathy. Besides improved methods of enumeration and a slightly more popular response, the increase was also partly due to immigration from the adjoining districts to the sparsely populated thanas in the north. At the next census an increase of 8 per cent was recorded. This increase was partially due to the recording of a large number of persons who were born elsewhere but were residing in Champaran at the time of the census. The number of such persons had reached a very high total of 2,48,511.

Census of 1901.—A fall of 3.7 per cent was recorded in the census of 1901. This loss of population was partially due to the ravages of famine and disease within the district in the preceding decade. There was a famine in 1897 which had been preceded by several lean years. Dhaka thana in the district was the worst sufferer. Practically the whole of Bettiah subdivision, excepting a narrow strip on the banks of Gandak river, was in the grip of this famine. There was a reduced birth rate due to the low vitality of the people and an excess of deaths over births by 1,057 as recorded in the census. The famine and disease that were ravaging the district naturally kept away the immigrants. The number of immigrants recorded in 1901 was only 1,06,781 as against 2,48,511 recorded in the census of 1891.

The loss of population was spread over all the thanas of the district, excepting Adapur which has an exceptionally fertile soil and yielded a good crop even in 1896-97 when there was a famine. The incidence of decrease of population was largest in Motihari and Govindganj thanas.

Census of 1911.—The census of 1911 recorded an increase of 1,17,922 persons or 6.6 per cent. This increase took place in spite of a heavy incidence of emigration and a continued shrinkage in immigration.

The increase in population recorded in the census of 1911 was spread all over the district, excepting at Madhuban thana where there was a slight fall in the population. In 1901 Madhuban was most densely populated but it had suffered from the floods in 1906 and 1910. The rack-renting was also taken as a cause for the depletion in the population of this thana. As the figures in this thana showed an increase in the number of females as against decrease in the number of males there appears to have been a heavy incidence of emigration from this thana.

The rate of increase in the other thanas of Sadar subdivision was fairly uniform, i.e., between 4.13 per cent to 6.73 per cent, excepting Dhaka thana where the increase was nearly by 11 per cent. This was partially due to the area being fertile and also because it had suffered less from the flood. In Bettiah subdivision the thanas of Bettiah and Bagaha recorded an increase of 5.38 per cent and 5.93 per cent, respectively. Shikarpur thana recorded the highest rate of increase in the district, i.e., nearly 13 per cent. Reclamation of waste land steadily progressed in this thana and attracted immigrants.

Census of 1921.—The census of 1921 recorded an increase of only 1.70 per cent. The decline in population was chiefly due to the outbreak of a severe epidemic of influenza from 1918 to 1920. Cholera and plague had also visited the district in 1915—1917. Plague was particularly virulent in the Sadar subdivision of the district.

It may be mentioned here that except Saran and Champaran districts the other districts of Tirhut Division recorded a decline in the population in the census of 1921.

The figures of population for the censuses of 1911 and 1921 with percentage variation are quoted below :—

Population.

	1911.	1921.	Variation.	Percentage variation.
Saran	22,89,420	23,39,953	+50,523	+2.21
Champaran	19,08,385	19,40,841	+32,456	+1.70
Muzaffarpur	28,45,514	27,54,945	—90,569	—3.18
Darbhanga	29,29,682	29,13,529	—16,153	—0.55

In Champaran the rate of increase of population in Sadar subdivision was 2.01 per cent as against 5.85 per cent recorded at the previous census. The corresponding figures for Bettiah subdivision were 1.28 per cent and 7.60 per cent, respectively. Almost all the thanas of both the subdivisions showed a slight increase, excepting the thanas of Kesaria, Madhuban and Shikarpur. Shikarpur thana in Bettiah subdivision appears to have sustained a heavy loss and recorded a decline of 3 per cent as against an increase of nearly 13 per cent in the previous census. This area being nearer the Terai area of Nepal suffered more from diseases.

Census of 1931.—In this census an increase of population by 10.6 per cent was recorded. This rate was at par with the rates of increase in respect of the other three districts of Tirhut Division, namely Saran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga (6.26 per cent, 6.75 per cent and 8.67 per cent, respectively). The increase in population in Champaran district was fairly spread over both the subdivisions. The highest percentage of increase was recorded in Motihari thana and the lowest in Madhuban thana, the figures being 13.37 and 7.52, respectively. The increase in Madhuban thana was rather substantial considering the fact that at the previous three censuses, viz., 1901, 1911 and 1921, it had recorded an actual decline. The population of the district could have been more but for a heavy emigration, the figure was in excess of 17,500 in comparison to the immigration figure.

Census of 1941.—The rate of increase in population recorded in the census of 1941 was 11.74 per cent and there was an increase of 5,38,104 persons. The rate of increase was second to Saran district in Tirhut Division and was more or less in keeping with the corresponding rates in the districts of Saran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga at 15.04, 10.32 and 9.14, respectively.

The rate of increase at Madhuban thana of Sadar subdivision was 7.83 per cent as against 7.52 per cent in the previous census. The rate of increase at Bagaha thana in the Bettiah subdivision was 7.75 per cent as against 9.18 per cent in the previous census year. Motihari thana of Sadar subdivision, however, recorded an increase of 16.69 per cent. No particular reasons could be indicated for this high incidence.

Census of 1951.—The census of 1951 recorded an increase of 4.9 per cent. The rate of increase is much too low than the rates in the previous census years. The rates of increase in the three other districts of Tirhut Division, namely, Saran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, were 10.3, 8.5 and 9.0, respectively, as against 15,04, 10.32 and 9.19 respectively, in the previous census year. This decline in the rate of increase appears to be due to malnutrition in war time scarcity, epidemics and emigration. Deaths from epidemics alone from 1942 to 1951 were 51,153 as against the total deaths of 4,59,921 during the same period. The decrease in the rate was more pronounced in Sadar subdivision than in Bettiah subdivision. Shikarpur and Adapur thanas recorded a steep decline in the rate of increase.

MALES AND FEMALES.

The table below shows the male and female population for all the districts of Tirhut Division :—

Year.	Saran.		Muzaffarpur.		Darbhanga.		Champaran.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1881	10,90,309	12,04,692	12,66,943	13,17,717	12,94,329	13,36,167	8,70,627	8,50,981
1891	11,32,606	13,31,955	13,06,584	14,07,593	13,70,985	14,30,970	9,36,135	9,23,330
1901	10,95,282	13,13,814	13,19,110	14,37,020	14,16,474	14,96,137	8,85,607	9,04,856
1911	10,64,272	12,25,158	13,60,200	14,85,314	14,12,669	15,17,013	9,42,012	9,68,373
1921	11,32,355	12,07,598	13,24,991	14,29,954	14,20,719	14,92,810	9,68,478	9,72,363
1931	12,20,203	12,66,534	14,43,847	14,97,178	15,70,959	15,95,135	10,80,956	10,64,731
1941	13,74,154	14,86,383	15,84,279	16,60,372	16,98,060	17,59,010	12,13,074	11,84,495
1951	15,01,253	16,53,891	17,30,750	17,89,989	18,44,201	19,25,333	12,67,406	12,47,937

The figures for males and females for the district of Champaran show a peculiar trend. In the census years of 1881 and 1891 the male population had exceeded the female population but in the three succeeding censuses (1901, 1911 and 1921) the female population was found to have exceeded the male population. Again in the next three censuses, i.e., 1931, 1941 and 1951 the male population has exceeded the female population. Champaran district is the only district in Tirhut Division which has this peculiar trend as in all the other districts of the division the female population has always exceeded the male population in the different census years.

The trend of male and female population might suggest periodical heavy emigration. But the fact remains just the reverse and the census figures indicate more immigration to the district than emigration from the district, at least during the census years when the female population exceeded the male population. Another peculiarity is observed in respect of immigration and emigration; at the census of 1901 the number of male immigrants had exceeded that of the female immigrants by a small margin while at the censuses of 1911 and 1921 this was reverse. In respect of the emigration the trend was just opposite to the trend of immigration. The relevant statistics for the years 1901—1921 are given below :—

Year.		Immigrants.		Emigrants.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1901	..	55,047	51,734	16,442	19,634
1911	..	42,012	53,506	29,409	18,423
1921	..	30,242	40,170	25,101	21,361

If the above figures are to be accepted as correct we find that there was more of female immigrants to the district and more of male emigrants from the district at the censuses of 1911 and 1921 which may be one of the causes for the excess of female population over male population during these two censuses. However, the excess of male population recorded in 1931, 1941 and 1951 cannot be accounted for easily as at the census of 1931 the number of female immigrants had exceeded the number of male immigrants and a similar trend is noticeable at the census of 1951 also. As regards the census of 1941 no comment is possible as in that census no detailed table of migration was compiled due to war time emergency. The census of 1951 had recorded a larger number of female emigrants than male emigrants. But that does not give any help as the number of immigrants was greater than emigrants within the State and the number of female immigrants exceeded the number of male immigrants.

Movement of Population.—In the District Gazetteer of Champaran published in 1907 O'Malley has finally analysed the trend of migration. His observations are quoted below *in extenso* to give a connected description of immigration and emigration :—

" Perhaps the most prominent feature during the last twenty years has been the extent to which immigration has gone on. In 1881 no less than 1,93,659 persons were residing in the district who were born elsewhere, and this great army of immigrants had increased to 2,48,511 in 1891, including 83,241 immigrants from Saran, 58,076 from Muzaffarpur, 52,241 from the United Provinces, and 34,626 from Nepal. The census of 1901 shows that the tide of immigration has begun to ebb. The number of immigrants was found to be only 1,06,781 and it would appear therefore that the ranks of those enumerated in 1891 have not been swelled by the arrival of new-comers, and that many of those who were then in the district must since have returned to their former homes. Even so, however, no less than 50.6 per thousand of the present population are immigrants and this is the highest proportion in the whole of Bihar.

" The volume of emigration is far smaller, the number of natives of Champaran enumerated elsewhere in 1901 being only 36,077. Champaran is, indeed the only Bihar district, except Purnea, where the immigrants out number those who have left the district. The people have ample land at home, and there is little emigration except to the contiguous districts. The bulk of the immigrants also come from the adjoining districts, especially from Gorakhpur in the United Provinces, from Saran and also, though to a less extent, from Muzaffarpur. The volume of migration between Champaran and distant places is comparatively small, but those who thus leave the district outnumber those who come into it in the ratio of more than 4 to 1.

" Immigration from Nepal to the half reclaimed country in the north of Champaran formerly took place on a large scale, but it is believed that the influx is now counter-balanced by an ebb of population in the opposite direction; in 1901 the number of immigrants from Nepal was 19,540 as compared with 34,626 in 1891. Rents, it is said, are lower in Nepal, good land is plentiful and settlers are particularly attracted by a strip of jungle in the Nepalese Tarai which is now being cleared for cultivation. There are, however, no statistics of population of Nepal, and it is impossible to verify this inference. As a rule, it is reported, the emigrants only go a few miles inside Nepal, and have their permanent houses in British territory."

In 1911 census a decline of immigration in Champaran district was noticed. In 1911 the figure of immigration was 95,518 as against the corresponding figure of 1,06,781 in 1901. Simultaneously there was an increase in the number of emigrants and this stood at 47,832 in 1911 as against 36,077 in 1901. The fact that although the uncultivated portions of the district needed a large contingent of occasional field labourers but there was an increase in immigration shows that other districts must have offered higher wages and other amenities.

The trend of decline in immigration continued as shown in the census figure of 1921. In this census the figure for immigration went down to 70,412, recording a decrease of 25,106 persons. But the emigration figure remained more or less stationary.

In the report for the Census Operation in Bihar for 1931 Mr. W. G. Lacey, I.C.S., Superintendent of Census Operations, had observed as follows :—

> "The total number of births recorded in the district during the decade exceeded the total number of deaths by 2,22,500, whereas the increase in the actual population was only 2,05,000. As we can assume in the case of this district that the deaths of emigrants abroad were roughly balanced by the deaths of immigrants within its borders, the difference of 17,500 ought (if both sets of figures are accepted as correct) to represent the extent to which the number of emigrants has increased in comparison with the number of immigrants. The statement (below) shows that the volume of immigration has remained almost stationary. As regards emigration, there has been an increase of some 4,000 in the number of emigrants from Champaran to other parts of the province. Whether the whole of the balance would be made good if we were in possession of details of extra-provincial emigration is a question which must remain unanswered, but there is reason to believe that at least a substantial portion would have been."

Champaran District.

Year.	Males.	Females.	Immigration.		Emigration.	
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1931 ..	10,80,956	10,64,731	31,081	42,079	..	..
1921 ..	9,68,478	9,72,363	30,242	40,170	25,101	21,361
Variation ..	1,12,478	92,368	839	1,909	..	..

The figures in 1931 census indicate that the flow of immigration which had begun to decline since 1921 was arrested while emigration figure showed an upward jump.

In the census of 1941 there are no figures to show the movement of population as the census operations in Bihar were curtailed owing to war emergency. In 1951 census the number of immigrants was recorded at 62,508 while that of the emigrants within the State was 24,340. So far as the immigration figure is concerned, there was a fall as compared with the corresponding 1931 figure. So far as the question of emigration is concerned, it is difficult to comment on the actual trend as we do not have the extra-State figures for 1931 or 1951.

Towns and Villages.—The table below shows the population of the towns in the district as recorded since 1901 :—

Census year :—	1901.	1911.	1921.	1931.	1941.	1951.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total population	17,90,463	19,08,385	19,40,841	21,45,687	23,97,569	25,15,343
NAME AND POPULATION OF THE TOWNS.						
Bettiah	24,693	25,793	24,291	27,941	30,309	35,634
Motihari	13,730	14,876	13,828	17,545	20,717	24,489
Sugauli Bazar	..	..	..	..	..	9,106
Raxaul Bazar	..	..	..	..	..	6,594
Shikarpur Bazar	..	..	..	..	..	6,576
Bagaha	..	..	..	..	..	5,820
Chakia Bazar	..	..	..	..	..	5,817
Chanpatia Bazar	..	..	..	..	4,510	5,100
Kesariya Bazar	..	..	..	..	..	4,307
Luathaha	..	..	..	..	..	1,417
Total urban population.	38,423	40,669	38,119	45,486	55,536	1,04,860

The table below shows the urban and rural population since 1901 :—

Year.	No. of villages.	Rural population.	Percentage of total.	No. of towns.	Urban population.	Percentage of total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1901 ..	2,623	17,52,040	97.87	2	38,423	2.13
1911 ..	2,651	18,67,716	97.85	2	40,669	2.15
1921 ..	2,554	19,02,722	98.0	2	38,119	2.0
1931 ..	2,548	21,00,201	97.90	2	45,486	2.10
1941 ..	2,612	23,46,033	97.83	3	51,536	2.17
1951 ..	2,622	24,10,483	95.82	10	1,04,860	4.18

(The small variation in the number of villages appears to be due to the fact that at every census only the number of inhabited villages is recorded.)

The figures will show that a number of new townships have grown recently. We have the figures for the growth of population since 1901 only for the towns of Bettiah and Motihari. It will be seen that there has been a steady growth in the population of the two towns of Bettiah and Motihari, although in 1921 census a slight decline was recorded. The population of Motihari has almost doubled now as compared with the figure of 1901. The total population of the towns according to 1951 census comes to 1,04,860 and this represents 4.2 per cent of the total population. This percentage of the present urban population may be compared with O'Malley's observation in the District Gazetteer of Champaran (1907) that the urban population contained in the two towns of Bettiah and Motihari represented only 2 per cent of the population of the district.

Since the partition in 1947, both the urban area and the immediate surrounding localities of Bettiah town have received more than 25.000 displaced persons from East Pakistan for rehabilitation purposes. Most of them at one time lived in camps and hutments, but they are now being distributed throughout the subdivision, for permanent settlement. At any rate, the population of Bettiah town is now increased by several thousands over the 1951 figure. A few hundreds of the displaced persons were rehabilitated in Motihari town and its neighbourhood.

Density of Population.—The district of Champaran is more thinly populated and has lesser density per square mile than its neighbouring districts of Saran and Muzaffarpur. The density of population in Champaran was 507 persons per square mile in 1901 as against 898 and 908 per square mile for Saran and Muzaffarpur, respectively. The density of population in Champaran in 1951 has been calculated at 713 per square mile as against 1,178 and 1,168 for Saran and Muzaffarpur, respectively. According to the census of 1951, the most thickly populated thanas in Champaran are Dhaka, Adapur and Madhuban which fall in the eastern part of the district near the border area of Muzaffarpur. The density of these three thanas is 1,080, 1,007 and 968 per square mile as against the density of 771, 749 and 810 per square mile, respectively, in 1901. Madhuban was most thickly populated in 1901 but in 1951 it was third in the district from that angle. The most thinly populated thanas in 1901 were Shikarpur and Bagaha to the north-west of the district. The density of these two thanas in 1951 was 432 and 374 per square mile as against the density of 270 and 301 per square mile, respectively, in 1901. The recent figures show that while the density of Shikarpur thana has increased considerably during the last 50 years, Bagaha thana has not shown any sign of satisfactory progress in respect of density. The reason for the sparse population may be more unhealthy climatic condition of this district than the other districts of Tirhut Division.

It may be mentioned here that the density figures as in 1951 census for the different thanas have now undergone a change, particularly for Bettiah thana by the settlement of about 25,000 displaced persons from East Pakistan near about Bettiah in 1956.

We may review the population trends during the period 1872 to 1950 and observe that there was a large increase in population due mainly to emigration from other districts between 1872—1890. There was a severe famine in 1897 and also persistent unhealthiness in this decade and the population fell by 3.7 per cent. The following decade (1901—1910) again showed a large increase which is attributable chiefly to improvement in public health and economic conditions though immigration had practically stopped by this time. During 1911—1920, mainly due to ravages of cholera and influenza, the rate of growth fell to 1.7 per cent. The population increased rapidly during the succeeding two decades, the net increase being no less than 4,56,728. In the 1920—30 decade, public health conditions were exceptionally good and economic conditions were also generally favourable in spite of disappointing harvests in 1923, 1925, 1926 and 1930. A light railway was constructed during this period by the Nepalese Government linking Raxaul and Bhiknatori with Nepal. This facilitated communication and trade between Nepal and India through Champaran and an inflow and outflow of population. Though small it has some effects. The 1931 census recorded a net increase of 2,04,846 or 10.55 per cent over the 1921 population in spite of the fact that by this time the number of emigrants had begun to exceed that of immigrants. In the last decade, however, the decennial rate of growth had fallen to 4.8 per cent only as compared with 8.4 per cent for the North-Bihar Plain Division and 9.6 per cent for the State as a whole. The marked fall in the growth rate during the last decade appears to be due to the ravages of cholera and small-pox and increase in emigration.

The following statement quoted from the *Census Report of India,* Vol. V, published in 1956, shows variation in the population of the district, and its constituent units down to revenue thanas during the last two censuses :—

District, subdivision and revenue thana.	Population, 1951.	Percentage variation.		Density, 1951.
		1941—51.	1931—41.	
Champaran	25,15,343	4.9	11.7	713
Motihari subdivision ..	14,43,961	4.1	12.1	944
Motihari	2,63,997	5.0	16.7	921
Adapur	2,28,151	2.8	9.0	1,007

District, subdivision and revenue thana.	Population, 1951.	Percentage variation.		Density, 1951.
		1941—51.	1931—41.	
Dhaka	3,66,554	3.2	9.9	1,080
Kessaria	2,39,072	5.3	13.1	890
Madhuban	1,20,764	0.7	7.8	968
Gobindganj	2,25,483	4.8	15.1	795
Bettiah subdivision ..	11,71,383	6.2	11.2	536
Bettiah	4,88,698	4.8	11.4	878
Bagaha	2,61,741	3.5	7.8	374
Shikarpur	3,20,943	10.8	14.2	432

" In 1931—1940, the increase in population was distributed more evenly between the different thanas, but in the last decade, the sparsely populated thanas have generally speaking, gained more than the densely populated thanas, the highest increase having been recorded in Shikarpur which has even now a density of 432 persons per square mile."

DISPLACED PERSONS.

After the partition in 1947 and the creation of East Pakistan there has been, from time to time, a heavy influx of displaced persons from East Pakistan to West Bengal. According to agreed arrangement between the Ministry of Rehabilitation, Government of India and the State Government of Bihar, it was decided that the State Government would rehabilitate a portion of the population of displaced persons within the State of Bihar. Champaran was one of the districts selected. The first batch of displaced families arrived on the 4th June, 1956 at the Bettiah Refugee Relief Camp. By February, 1957 the population of displaced persons in Bettiah Camp came to 28,065 comprising 7,707 families.

Arrangements were made to accommodate the batches of displaced persons on arrival in Transit Camps located at Bettiah. The dispersal of families from the Transit Camps to the Rehabilitation Centres could follow only after lands had been purchased and preliminary arrangements were completed for the reception and settlement of the displaced persons.

There are two Transit Camps (1958)—one at West Hazari and the other at Kumarbagh at a distance of about 3½ miles and 7 miles respectively from Bettiah town. The Transit Camps are under the administrative control of the Camp Commandant, who is a gazetted officer of the State Civil Service. He has a number of officers to assist him, which include doctors, lady welfare assistants, camp superintendent, etc.

As mentioned before, the Camps had received 28,065 displaced persons. Till the end of December, 1958, there is a population of 14,458 displaced persons still in the Camps. They consist of 3,283 families out of which 1,763 families are agriculturists with 7,276 displaced persons and 1,520 non-agriculturists with 7,182 persons. Considering the pressure on the Camps and the low incidence of health with which most of the displaced persons came, the number of 1,018 deaths that had taken place in the Camps till the first week of December, 1958, should not be considered as high. It may be mentioned that there were 1,798 births within the Camps during the same period. Unfortunately for various reasons there have been desertions of the displaced persons both from the Camps and the Colonies from time to time. A total population of 4,249 persons comprising 927 families had deserted from the Camps. Many of them have returned but their actual figures are not available.

For the rehabilitation of the displaced persons blocks of good cultivated lands have been acquired. In Bettiah subdivision alone 7,400 acres of land have been acquired till the middle of December, 1958. Some lands have been offered by the Narkatiaganj Sugar Mill and Motihari Sugar Mill within the district of Champaran.

There are four colonies of displaced persons distributed over 22 villages within the district. The villages are : Materia, Chautarwa, Dudhawarah, Biranchi, Dumari, Pachrukha, Lalsaraiya, Bairiya, Majharia, Sirisia, Semra, Lakshmipur, Sirsa, Dhekaha, Hanumangarh, Belwa Mukari, Bhirbheria, Parsauni, Parsa, Sirkohia, Harpur and Kothia Punas.

The colonies are under the administrative control of the respective Subdivisional Magistrates of Bettiah and Sadar under the direct supervision of the District Magistrate. In order to give a start to the displaced persons in the colonies, cash doles and lands are given for the purchase of seeds, agricultural implements, bullocks and the building materials of hutments. Basic amenities like water-supply, medical aid and primary education are provided for. Technical training is also given at selected centres. Particular attention is paid to the women of the displaced persons who are encouraged to do knitting and sewing and follow other suitable vocational training. Trainees are also given stipends.

There has also been a dispersal of selected displaced persons to different districts of Bihar, namely, Saran, Muzaffarpur, Purnea, Santhal Parganas and Singhbhum. Separate districtwise figures for such dispersal are, however, not available. It may be mentioned that batches of fishermen have been sent to Raj Mahal in Santhal Parganas district which offers excellent fishing facilities for such people.

It has been decided that persons who are disabled or otherwise, physically infirm or unfit, due to old age or illness and those families which do not have any adult male member will be included in the Permanent Liability Category and they will be maintained on free cash doles from Government.

It is felt that there should be a mention of the very great difficulties with which the rehabilitation problem has been tackled in this district. Unfortunately there has not been much response or co-operation from the displaced persons themselves. There have been far too many political intrigues within the Camps and most of the desertions were due to such cross currents. The displaced persons have also been frequently changing their professions. It is also unfortunate that there should be a peculiar complacence and a fond expectancy of being spoon-fed. While visiting a colony a case was noticed where a man had been ill but would not go to a dispensary at a distance of about one mile from the colony as he was expecting an ambulance to come from a distance of about 12 miles to take him to the dispensary. On being questioned the displaced person gave out that since he was refugee, he wanted preferential treatment and he thought that he should be carried in the ambulance. This instance is mentioned as being typical of the attitude.

The Tharus.

General—Origin.

The Tharus of Champaran represent a small cross section of the population in the district but, nevertheless, they offer an excellent field of study where a semi-tribal population through close contact of a different type of culture has almost completely changed their essential characteristics within the last five or six decades. Mr. H. H. Risley in volume II of his "Tribes and Castes in Bengal" (1891) and John Nesfield in an article in Calcutta Review in January, 1885, had indicated that the Tharus were essentially an aboriginal tribe. They held that this aboriginal tribe was slowly pushed out from the Sub-Himalayan forests by the Aryan Community and made scattered settlements in the border areas of India adjoining Nepal. Risley felt that the Tharus belonged to the Dravidian or Kolarian aboriginal races and his conclusion was largely based on the peculiar dialect the Tharus spoke. Both Nesfield and Risley rejected the claim of the Tharus as originally coming from the region of the Thar desert of Rajputana. Risley described the religion of the Tharus as a compound of animism and nature worship and of some popular elements borrowed from Hinduism. Risley mentions Rikheshwar as the principal deity for worship by the Tharus. He mentioned about their love for communal dance and song and that no orthodox Hindu would interdine with a Tharu.

This description of Tharus by Risley about seven decades back, if correct, is now absolutely out of date. By slow acculturisation the Tharus have now changed themselves almost radically as our spot investigations indicate.

The Tharus now number about 50,000 living in parts of Bagaha, Ramnagar, Shikarpur and Mainatanr police-stations of Champaran district. All these areas are contiguous to Nepal Tarai. It may be mentioned here that there is a considerable Tharu population in Nepal and in the areas of some of the districts of Uttar Pradesh adjoining Nepal. In Champaran they live in an area extending over 800 square miles on the northern border, bounded on the north-east and the west by Nepal and on the south by the Tribeni Canal. This area is known as Tharuhat.

The origin of the Tharu tribe is a matter of controversy. The opinion of Nesfield and Risley has already been indicated. There has not been much of investigation on their origin. The physical features of the Tharus are mongoloid. The women are more comely and energetic than the men. The women look much more intelligent. The Tharus are very fond of meat and fish. Dried fish, ham and poultry are much prized. They tend cows, but never milch them. Fond of drinking, they often brew their own liquor from stale cooked rice. Their craze for liquor has ruined many families. It is very peculiar that the language they speak is more or less Bhojpuri Hindi as is common in Chotanagpur district. They have some peculiar slangs and a proper compilation and investigation of these slangs might give a clue to their origin.

The Tharu women do not observe *purdah*. The present day Tharu girl of higher income group has taken more quickly to modern make up and dress than their Hindu sisters. The influence of the modernised Nepalese girls is quite apparent on the Tharus. They are fond of songs and dancing, but no Tharu women have been known to stage a communal public dance like the Adibasi women of Chotanagpur. They are artistic in temperament and have a good idea of colour and pattern scheme for their knitting, sewing and household work. They are good house-wives and home-proud.

The theory of the infiltration of the Tharus from Rajputana rejected by Nesfield and Risley does not find support from another living scholar, Shri Rahul Sankrityayan. He thinks that a stay of four to five hundred years in Champaran district could not have extinguished the other tribe whose daughters they claim to have married and the localised Magadhi, the spoken language of the Tharus, could not have been the result of only a few hundred years of fruition.

The word Tharu has been variously analysed. To some it origins from Thar in Rajputana. Some other take that the people of the Tarai are known loosely as the Tharus. The word Tharu is also held to be the corruption of the word Thakur.

It would be interesting to know the social values of the Tharus. The incidence of literacy among the Tharus is, indeed, very low. Probably, even now (1958) there are not more than half a dozen graduates among them. But the common Tharu who has had contact with the world outside their Tharuhat take pride in claiming a Rajput descent. They are anxious to associate themselves with the Sakyas and call themselves Rajputs like the Sakyas. Their mongoloid features and the worship of a goddess called Sahodara, a localised term for Yasodhara, are fondly pointed out to support the theory of Rajput descent. Peculiarly associated with the theory of Rajput origin is a tradition of the Tharu women, who have a superior complex regarding their male-folks. Till a decade or two back, a Tharu woman would hesitate to partake of any food that has been eaten by any male member of her family. She would not even allow a male to enter into her kitchen. There is no doubt that this complex is now liquidating itself but even today there are some ladies who observe these taboos. This taboo is very much contrary to the usual set up of a Hindu family life and suggests the higher caste complex in the women. It is said that being driven away by Muhammadans they came up to the border of Champaran with a view to migrate to Nepal. It was decided that the male adults would reconnoitre Nepal before they would take the female-folks to Nepal. As a result the women were kept long in charge of the older men and the servants. After waiting for several months when the husbands did not return the servants gave out that the masters were not coming back and they started living with the Tharu women as their wives. Sometime after the men-folk returned and took away only the women that had not been seduced. The women left in Champaran district thereby imbibed a superior complex.

A closer analysis of the Tharus as a tribe shows that there are sub-castes with occupational nomenclature. A sub-caste of the Tharus, namely, Gaurihara was originally incharge of the maintenance of the cows, the word 'Gau' being a Hindi version of 'cow'. Similarly another sub-caste 'Diswas', served as the scavengers, the word 'Disa' being the local term for night-soil.

The Tharus have been able to upgrade themselves through sheer contact with the other more advanced sections of the Hindus. The Tharus also point out that the Nepal Government have recognised them as *Sabarn* Hindus (high castes). Risley's Rikheshwar is now an unknown deity throughout Tharuhat. The Tharus of today worship Kali, Shiva, Mahavira, Satyanarain and other deities worshipped by the Hindus and observe the normal Hindu festivals, like Chat, Diwali, Holi, etc. They have been able to completely Hinduise themselves and there are hardly left any avowedly tribal beliefs and practices. There has been a wonderful osmotic process through contacts.

The upsurge in the Tharus does not, however, appear to have helped them economically. In the census of 1941 the Tharus were recorded as an aboriginal tribe. There was a great agitation and as a result the Tharus were removed from the list of the aboriginal tribes in the census of 1951 where they were recorded as members of the Backward·Community. Agitation and representation helped them to get their clan deleted from the list of aboriginals and now they are trying to get it deleted from the list of Backward class and get it recorded among the high caste Hindus as Rajputs. But at the same time there is a small section of the Tharus who feel that they did a blunder by getting the community deleted from the list of aboriginals as thereby they have become ineligible for the special facilities that are available only to the aboriginals. These trends mentioned may help the future investigator for their origin and changes. Their urge to upgrade themselves has to be organised and well guided.

Social and Family Organisation.

The social organisation of the Tharus also shows this unobstrusive struggle and the clash of pulls. Originally divided amongst 60 to 70 sub-castes known as Gaurihar, Rautar, Bantar, Khausia, Diswa, etc., it is now difficult for many of them to disclose a complete list of the sub-castes. There is not much of watertightness amidst these sub-castes like their counterparts in the more orthodox Hindu community. In this respect the Tharus are more akin to the tribals who do not observe restrictions of inter-dining between different sects although there are marriage taboos. It is significant that there is no case of caste-hierarchy among the Tharus and no sub-caste is considered to be a top notcher. Rudiment of literacy, however, has been successfully injecting the virus of casteism among the Tharus as our investigators came across several men of different Tharu sub-castes who claim their sub-caste to be superior to the others. This virus has to be syphoned off by social education.

In spite of the impact of the modern trends the Tharus have still their traditional head of the village known as *gumasta*. The *gumasta* is elected, but once elected, the office becomes hereditary unless a particular incumbent is considered misfit. An unsuccessful *gumasta* can also be removed by the villagers. The *gumasta* with the help of the influential members of the village would settle the family disputes of the Tharus and impose fine upon the defaulting persons. This fine is pooled, kept in custody and utilised for social purposes. If a girl of one Tharu sub-caste elopes with a boy of another sub-caste and the leader of the boy's sub-caste asks for a ransom before the girl is returned, such ransoms will be met from this common fund if other resources fail. Cases of misappropriation of this common fund are rare but have occurred. The Tharus are not quarrelsome by nature and seldom use strong language. Their petty quarrels are often decided by the *gumastas*. The social organisation stands at par with the community organisation among the Oraons, Mundas and Hos of Chotanagpur. Impact of modernism has almost liquidated such community organisations among the aboriginal tribes of Chotanagpur and it is difficult to say that the future of the Tharu organisation is also not in peril.

Joint family system is still the rule. Every joint family has a Master (Malik) and a Mistress (Malkin) of the house. Usually the son succeeds the father and takes up the family responsibility. It is remarkable that the servants of a well-to-do Tharu family like ploughmen or herdsmen live as members of the family. They eat along with the other members of the family in the same dining room and share the common food.

The Tharus have still a few indigenous customs and manners. Whenever a Tharu comes from outside he touches the hands of all the persons present by going round. A man coming from outside cooks and takes his meal just outside the boundary of his village before he enters the village. The idea is that if anything untoward has happened in the community during his absence he may not be able to have his meal. This indicates strong clan feelings. Apparently the indigenous customs in connection with marriage have now disappeared. Even the marriage songs are mostly some popular *Bhojpuri* songs with local variation. The Tharus marry in their own clan or *gotra* and exchange of boys and girls with two families is a common form of marriage. This often leads to a disparity of age of the bride and the bridegroom. Child marriage is common.

It is, however, remarkable that marriage negotiations among Tharus normally start from the side of the bridegroom. The custom will also underline the superiority complex of the Tharu women. The economic status of the bridegroom is carefully appraised before a marriage is fixed. On the marriage night the bridegroom's party is not offered any meal at the girl's house. The meal is given on the next morning. If married as a child, a girl goes to the husband's place when she attains puberty. She is usually accompanied by a number of female relations and these female relations have to be satisfied as to the economic status and manners of the bridegroom's family. There have been cases where marriages have been broken off because the inspecting party of women was dissatisfied with the treatment or with the status of the husband's family. This is also a pointer to the superior complex of the Tharu women.

Polygamy is prevalent to a limited extent. Widow marriage is quite common but marrying a brother's wife is a taboo. There is no recognised system of divorce but usually this is brought about by the girl's refusal to live with her husband and she is married to another man of the same clan and the husband has to pay a fine for being a misfit for the girl. In the case of desertion by wife the children of the deserted husband are treated as the legitimate children of the latter and live with him. If a Tharu girl is detected in love intrigue with an outsider, the society will fine the boy, usually a sum of Rs. 81. This sum is utilised for a community feast. Any child born of any such love intrigue is treated as the legitimate child of the woman's husband. The society and the families of the Tharus are comparatively free from a large number of taboos and this has led to remarkable resilence which has kept up the solidarity of the Tharu society. A Tharu woman has her social status and civil rights according to tradition and custom.

Economic Condition.

The economic condition of the average Tharu is unsatisfactory. At a rough calculation only about 20 per cent of the Tharus have some land and the rest are landless labourers. They have been very much exploited by the non-Tharu businessmen and money-lenders. It is also a remarkable feature in the Tharuhat that when the crops are being gathered, a large number of itinerary shopkeepers open their shops within Tharuhat and sell cheap trinkets and other attractive articles which take away most of their money. Much of the cultivable land of the Tharuhat area are now under the possession of the non-Tharus. The simplicity and the improvident habits of the Tharus have been fully exploited by the *mahajans* and the incidence of indebtedness of the Tharus is very high. Many of the Tharuhat areas are still without proper communication. They cultivate only one crop, paddy. They have not yet taken to any technical avocation. They are not very hardworking and they do not care to utilise their labour for fixing up minor irrigational work if they know.

It is, however, peculiar that in spite of the backwardness, there is hardly any beggar in the whole of Tharuhat. A Tharu shudders at the site of a Tharu beggar. A Tharu would willingly help another Tharu in case of necessity.

As mentioned before, the incidence of literacy and education among the Tharus is very low. A few years back there were only a few primary schools in the Tharuhat. The major part of the Tharuhat area has now been covered by the Community Development Projects and the National Extension Service Block. Owing to the efforts of these projects a few more primary and middle schools and small irrigational facilities have been provided. It is calculated that the proposed Dam on the river Masan will be much beneficial to the Tharus.

It is a notorious fact that a Tharu would not willingly send a boy to the school because he could hardly afford to lose the boy's labour for the family income. The deletion of the Tharus from the list of aboriginal tribes has deprived them of any special aid from the State.

The backwardness of Tharuhat area is illustrated by the prevalent indigenous weights and measures. The smallest unit of weight in the Tharuhat is known as *hathai*. This *hathai* is the name of a container, which, when filled in, would contain 13 *chataks* of paddy and 18 *chataks* of rice according to the standard weight. The biggest unit is known as *bisa,* that is, twenty times of a *hathai.* Liquids like oil, milk, *ghee,* etc., are also measured with *hathai.*

Land measure in the Tharuhat area is also very different from the other parts of Champaran. Three bighas of Tharuhat would roughly measure about one acre.

The economic future of Tharuhat area is now largely with the two Community Development Projects and one National Extension Service Block. The projects are located at Bagaha and Ramnagar thanas while the Block is situated at Gaunaha police-station. Some useful work has already been done in the Tharuhat area but much still remains to be done. There is no doubt that the Tharuhat is an excellent area for showing good work as the people are simple and responsive and the needs are acute. The basic materials for improvement exist and it is up to the Project Officers to do a good job in Tharuhat.

The Tharus of Champaran district have a close affinity with the Tharus in Nainital and Kheri districts of Uttar Pradesh. The Tharu women in Kheri district still observe the dietary restriction referred to and would not allow the male-folk to come to the kitchen. There is some sort of a sub-tribe hierarchy among Kheri Tharus. Although hypergamous marriages are becoming rare the social gradation still exists. Levirate is a common and preferred form of marriage. The Tharus of Kheri have no *gotra.* They have, however, the marital circle of what they call Kurma. The Kurma stands for kin who once lived together, and is an exogamous unit.

Dr. D. N. Majumdar in his article "The Tharus and their Blood Groups" (Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VIII, 1942, no. 1) mentions: "The Tharus and Bhoksas are most interesting to ethnologists as both have maintained many of their primitive customs and traits in spite of their recent contacts with advanced social groups. The Bhoksas are found dovetailed between the Tharus in the Tarai and Bhabar from the Nainital-Pilibhit district border extending westwards across the north of Bijnour district and the south of Garhwal to the Ganges. The total Tharu population as recorded in the 1931 census is 77,021, of which 40,288 are males and 36,733 females (1931 Census, Vol. I, pt. II, p. 523). The distribution of the Tharus province-wise is as follows: Bengal 482, Bihar and Orissa 37,338 and U. P. 39,201. In the Nainital district of the U. P. there are 30,753 Tharus and 6,600 Bhoksas. The Nainital Tharus are found in the following places: Bilhari, Nanakmata, Kilpuri and Tanakpur, but the majority are found in the Khatima Tehsil, which includes the whole of Bilhari Perganah, a part of the old Nanakmata, a part of Kilpuri and Tanakpur. In the Kheri district in U. P., the Tharus inhabit the northern areas bordering Nepal, from Bilraian to Bankati and even beyond. They are found on either side of the river Sarda, in British India and Nepal.

There is little doubt that the Tharus and the Bhoksas belong to the same ethnic stock and it is perhaps true that both of these groups had come to the Tarai at the same time. The little difference in their culture should be attributed to the process of tribal transformation which must have taken place in their present habitat. It is possible that one group joined the ranks of Hinduism earlier than the other. The stories about their origin, the traditions the people still remember, do not give any clue to their affiliation or difference. The Bhoksas say that they came from Dakshin or the south; some among them believe that they have come from Delhi, others that they were Panwar Rajputs and under Udayjit came to live at Bonbassa on the Sarda. Udayjit rendered valuable services to the Raja of Kumaon who gave them shelter. We shall discuss this aspect of their prehistory in another connection.

Culturally the Bhoksas are more advanced than the Tharus; they engage Brahmins to officiate in their marriages, and put on sacred thread like caste people. The Tharus allow divorce and remarriage of widows, the Bhoksas look down upon such practices. The Tharus are a devil-ridden people, have oaths and ordeals in plenty and much of their disputes are settled through them, while the Bhoksas have lost their faith in such expedients. Witchcraft is a special characteristic of the Tharus and so great is the belief in their magical powers that the other people who come to trade with them dare not come too near their villages. The Bhoksas do believe in magic and witchcraft but they do not practise these arts, but leave them to the Tharus who are consulted in times of crisis.

"The Tharu women have a dominant position in the society. They form 90 per cent of the crowd in markets and fairs. The women move about freely, and even smoke and drink in the bazar. Fishing is a feminine occupation and outdoor activity such as marketing produce, buying and selling, and business negotiations are also done by women. The acknowledged superiority of women among the Tharus has been the subject of much speculation and widely divergent views are held by scholars who have written on them. The Tharu women do not allow their husbands to touch food or enter the kitchen. They do not allow the men to touch the water pots wherein water for drinking is stored. The women are expert painters and decorators; they paint pictures and scenes depicting fights and warriors on horseback. The women fish and hunt; the men carry traps and receptacles. In the Census Report of the U. P. (1931) further peculiarities of Tharu women are recorded. While the caste women proceed to the fields, very early in the morning, have a meal at mid-day and work till the evening, the Tharu women go to their fields after a good meal corresponding to English breakfast. At mid-day they eat some grain and then return home in time to prepare the evening meal for their men-folk. They thus work two to three hours less than women of other tribes and castes. Again, Tharu women unlike other women do not carry paddy seedlings to the fields where they have to be transplanted; the seedlings have to be carried by men. Other women carry them on their head thus saving the expense of a labourer or two. Local landlords did their utmost to change these conditions but rather than change their mode of life the Tharus chose to leave the fields altogether. The result was an emigration of the Tharus to Nepal and adjacent parts where they live by agriculture or by engaging themselves as labourers."

Dr. Majumdar's observations are regarding the Tharus of Kheri district. It would not be correct to say that Tharu women of Champaran district drink in the bazar.

DHANGARS.

The term "Dhangar" is derived from the Oraon dialect, meaning a retained labourer. Dhangars in the district of Champaran comprise of four castes or tribes, namely, Oraon, Dhangars, Munda Dhangars, Lohara or Lohar Dhangars and Bhuiya Mahato or Bhuiya Dhangars. It is said that all these four castes were imported from outside by the indigo planters and Raja Prahlad Sen of Ramnagar towards the end of the eighteenth century to be engaged as labourers. Some of the Dhangars were imported from the Gaya district and others from the Chotanagpur Division. Dhangars are not included in the list of scheduled castes or tribes and hence they are debarred from enjoying the facilities granted by the Government to the members of scheduled castes. A short note in respect of each Dhangar caste is given below.

Oraon or Oraon Dhangars.

Oraon Dhangars or Nagpuri Dhangars, as they prefer to be called in order to distinguish themselves from their fellow brethren, chiefly live in the Tharuhat area side by side with the Tharus in some villages. But in union no. 8 of Bagaha police-station in about 40 to 50 villages they form the main population. This is called Dhangeran area. Their exact number is not known but the Special Officer, Backward Class Welfare, Champaran, estimated their number at 25,000 in 1953. This also included Munda Dhangars and Lohara Dhangars. These people are said to have migrated from the hills of Chotanagpur. They sing a song which indicates their migration from Chotanagpur. They might have some exclusiveness of culture from other Dhangars, but that is not of such order of standard which would make them conspicuous or could be easily detected by an individual.

Among themselves, they speak Oraon dialect, but in dealing with others they speak adulterated Bhojpuri.

They are strong and stout, dark complexioned men of medium height. Men are less active than women. They indulge in drink which they prepare themselves. On special occasion men and women drink and dance together. They are said to be very simple and honest people. They are fond of hunting.

So far as religion is concerned, they prefer Hinduism but observe their own religious festivals, such as "Karma Dharma", "Holi", "Sohrai", etc. They also retain *shikha* on their head. They might have in earlier days some forms of primitive modes of worship, but with the passage of time and mixing among the local populace they have now adopted more or less the Hindu religion as their own. Holi festival and keeping of *shikha* (tuft of hair on the head) are definite features of Hinduism, which they follow. Also they have "Karma Dharma" and "Sohrai" which are rather crude forms of Hinduistic festivals. Economically and educationally Oraons are even more backward than Tharus.

Munda or Munda Dhangars.

Munda or Munda Dhangars are very few in number in this district (about two to three thousands). They have become one with Oraons. In bodily structure they are a bit different from their Oraon brethren. In respect of other things they are akin to Oraons. However, inter-marriage and inter-dining are not prevalent.

Lohara or Lohar Dhangars.

Lohara or Lohar Dhangars are similar to Oraons, although inter-marriage and inter-dining between these two castes are not prevalent. Loharas are considered inferior to Oraons. Smithy is their main profession, although they are also tillers of the soil. Their numerical strength is more or less the same as that of Mundas.

Bhuiya Mahato or Bhuiya Dhangars.

The origin of Bhuiyas is not exactly known. They say that they are descendants of Ovi Rishi and that their original homes were in the district of Gaya whence they were brought to Champaran by the indigo planters to work in their factories. They are scattered all over the district, specially near the old indigo factories. They are said to be of either Musahar species or Bhuiyas of Gaya who are members of scheduled caste. The indigo planters are said to have brought them to take cheap and maximum labour from them on the line of slaves. So long as indigo factories were functioning they were no better than slaves, although they were not purchased or sold. They were given *jagirs* of 5 to 10 *kathas* and were forced to do hard manual labour, although they were paid for it. With the decline of factories they have lost their employment and in many cases *jagirs* as well. They are now field labourers. Educationally and economically, they are very backward. In 1953 their number was estimated to be 10,000.

In bodily structure Bhuiyas are slightly different from the other three Dhangar castes. They worship Hindu gods and goddesses.

Their way of living are nearer to the members of Hindu society than to the other three Dhangar castes.

LANGUAGE.

In the old District Gazetteer Mr. O'Malley mentions under the sub-head "Language" as follows :—

"The vernacular current in the district is a dialect of Bihari Hindi called Bhojpuri, of which two main varieties are found, viz., a border sub-dialect called Madhesi and a broken form called Tharu, which is current along the Nepal frontier. Muhammadans of the upper classes again mostly talk Awadhi, a dialect of Eastern Hindi. There are thus three dialects prevalent in the district of which the following sketch is condensed from Dr. Grierson's Linguistic Survey of India."

Evidence of Hindi being used as Court language at the earliest can be had from letter no. 68, Champaran, dated the 3rd March 1840, from G. D. Wilkins, Joint Magistrate, to I. Hawkins, Registrar, Sudder Dewany and Nizamaut Adawlut, Fort William. This mentions that in response to the Court's Circular no. 500, dated the 4th ultimo, to introduce the *Nagree* character in the office of the Magistrate, only the Session Judge had failed to adopt the character. Also the Magistrate expressed his views as to the inevitability of delay and inconveniences due to the illegibility and variety of the character as well as the time occupied in writing it.

Madhesi.

"The Champaran district is to the north of and separate by the Gandak river from Saran, with which it has historical and political connections. On the other hand, it forms part of the ancient country of Mithila. The language spoken in it illustrates this state of affairs. Although it is based in the main on the same stock as that of the Bhojpuri spoken in Saran and East Gorakhpur, it has some peculiarities borrowed from the Maithili spoken in the neighbouring district of Muzaffarpur. The Maithili influence is strongest in the east of the district on the Muzaffarpur border, where Maithili and not Bhojpuri is spoken in a strip of land, about two miles wide and 18 miles long, in Dhaka thana. As we go west the influence decreases, till on the banks of the Gandak, the language is the same as that spoken in north-east Saran, and in Eastern Gorakhpur. This dialect is locally known as Madhesi, a word formed from the Sanskrit Madhyadesa, meaning midland, an appropriate name enough for the language of the country situated between the Maithili-speaking country of Tirhut, and the Bhojpuri-speaking country of Gorakhpur. Some of the people actually name the form which the dialect takes in the western part of the district "Gorakhpur", but such minute distinctions are not necessary, and excepting the small strip in which Maithili is spoken it is sufficiently accurate to say that the language spoken over the whole of Champaran is Madhesi. As its name implies, the dialect is a border form of speech possessing some of the characteristics of both Bhojpuri and Maithili, but its structure is in the main that of Bhojpuri. It shares with Maithili a dislike to the cerebral 'r' frequently substituting the dental 'r' for it. The Maithili form *okni,* current in Muzaffarpur, is used for "to them" and the third person singular of the past tense of transitive verbs regularly ends in *ak,* as in Maithili, e.g., *kahlak,* he said, *delak,* he gave, etc. It is estimated that no less than 17,14,036 persons in this district speak Madhesi, while 28,800 persons speak Maithili.

Tharu.

"Tharu is the dialect of the aboriginal tribe of Tharus, who inhabit the Tarai along the Nepal frontier. They have no speech of their own, but have adopted more or less completely the language of their Aryan neighbours and speak a corrupt form of the local Bhojpuri mixed with aboriginal words. It is estimated that in Champaran 27,620 persons speak Tharu. Tharu is spoken by all the Tharus of this district who number about 50,000. Excepting them, this dialect is not current among any other section of the district population.

Awadhi.

"Awadhi, literally the language of Oudh, is a dialect of Eastern Hindi spoken by middle class Muhammadans and by people of the Tikulihar or spangle-maker caste, the total number of persons speaking it being estimated at 58,000. The Awadhi spoken by the Tikulihars is locally known as Tikulihari, and that spoken by the middle class Musalmans is called Shekhoi.

Domra.

"Domra is a gipsy dialect or a kind of "Thieves" "Latin" spoken by criminal tribes. It is merely a perversion of the local dialect deliberately intended to prevent outsiders from understanding what is meant, e.g., *jamadar* becomes *majadar* and a rupee is called *bajaiya,* i.e., a thing which rings. It is estimated that in Champaran 4,000 persons speak Domra, but it is probably that most of these are quite as much at home in the ordinary Bhojpuri of the district as in their own peculiar jargon." (O'Malley).

These observations have their value but cannot be accepted as exactly indicating the present picture. The dialects have now been more broadbased owing to the changing circumstances and it may generally be said that the bulk of the population speaks Hindi. Domra in spite of the influence of other dialects like Madhesi, Bhojpuri or Maithili, is current among the Doms even today. The tribal Doms use it more than the *deshwali* Doms.

A table is given below showing the number of speakers of different languages as their mother tongue as returned in the census of 1951 :–

Languages.	Persons.	Total speakers.	
		Males.	Females.
Indo-Aryan languages—			
*Hindi	25,13,548	12,66,428	12,47,120
Nepali	977	618	359
Bengali	632	241	391
Marwari	73	26	47
Punjabi	11	3	8
Other Indo-Aryan languages	11	7	4
Dravidian Languages :—			
Oraon	64	64	..
Other Dravidian Languages	2	..	2
European Languages :—			
English	25	19	6

The 1951 figures have also undergone substantial change by now. A large number of displaced persons from East Pakistan and a much smaller number from West Pakistan have now been rehabilitated in Champaran district. The influx of Bengali speaking displaced persons from East Pakistan would naturally swell the number of Bengali speaking people in the next census.

Another table is given below indicating the number of bilingual speakers as recorded at the census of 1951 :–

Mother tongue.	Total speakers.	Total persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to that shown in col. 1.	Subsidiary languages	
Hindi	2,513,548	647	Bengali	234
			Nepali	339
			Punjabi	19
			Marathi	6
			Marwari	47
			Gujrati	2

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* This also includes figures for Urdu speakers numbering 1,33,150. It has been found on a close observation that the majority of the rural muslims speak Bhojpuri or the general local dialect used by the Hindus, among themselves and with others. Urdu as a speaking media is mostly confined to the urban or the literate muslims.

Mother tongue.	Total speakers.	Total persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to that shown in col. 1.	Subsidiary languages.	
Bengali	632	204	Hindi ..	204
Nepali	977	686	Do. ..	686
Marwari	73	73	Do. ..	73
Punjabi	11	11	Do. ..	11
English	25	25	Do. ..	25
Oraon	64	64	Do. ..	64

(Several languages like Bhojpuri, Maithili, Domra, etc., do not find a separate mention at the census of 1951 and as such it is difficult to ascertain the number of their speakers. Many of them were recorded as Hindi speakers.)

RELIGION.

According to the census of 1951 there are 21,15,840 Hindus, 3,97,669 Muslims, 1,695 Christians and 119 Sikhs as against 15,23,949 Hindus, 2,64,086 Muslims and 2,417 Christians recorded in the census of 1901. Of the total population of 25,15,343 in 1951, Hindus constitute 84.12 per cent whereas Muslims constitute 15.81 per cent as against their percentage of 85 and nearly 15, respectively, in the year 1901. This shows that the ratio of Hindus and Muslims has more or less remained stationary. However, there has been a notable change in the fact that in 1901 Muslim population was more numerous in Champaran than any other districts of the province, excepting Purnea. But now the position is different. There are several other districts having a larger number of Muslim population than Champaran. Another important feature noticeable in respect of religion is that in 1901 there were no Sikhs in this district and even at the census of 1941 their number was only 29. The increase in their number in the census of 1951 appears due to settlement of displaced persons in the district. There appears to be a decrease in the number of Christians. This apparent decrease in the Christian population is not easily accountable. Their number appears to have been incorrectly recorded as the Bettiah Mission alone has the number of the Christians of Catholic faith as 5,000 in the district. There are also other non-Catholic Christians in the district. The Christian Mission claims that the actual Christian population in the district would not be less than 8,000 to 9,000. The 1951 census figures do not appear to be very correct.

Religious Movements.

The district has had several religious movements, many of which relate to the closing decade of the last century.

The district witnessed an anti-kine killing movement in 1893—1895 sponsored by the *Gorakshini Sabha* (association for the protection of cattle) whose object is the care of cattle wealth. It caused some unrest amongst Muhammadans for some time. Another movement believed to have been caused by the *Gorakshini* was the ploughmen's begging movement. This appears to have originated in the rumour that God Mahadeo appeared one evening to a *raiyat*, who was ploughing late, and caused his cattle to vanish in the fault of overworking them. On promising a penance of resting the cattle for three days and himself carrying round his plough and begging to prepare three wheaten cakes out of the proceed, one for himself, one for his cattle and the third to be buried under the stalls, the cattle were brought back. For some time it was carried by the Hindus scrupulously. There was another religious movement in 1894, known as tree-daubing, under which daubs of mud with hairs of different animals stuck therein were found on the trees. The reason could not be ascertained.

Another religious movement witnessed by the district is known as *Mahabiri Jhanda* or *Mahabiri Dals* sponsored by the Arya Samaj which started their activities in 1923. It is reported that it was started by the Hindus as an anti-religious movement to *Muharram*. On this occasion the Hindus assemble and start in a procession with a long flag post as a mark of their reverence to Mahabirji, the much venerated devotee of Rama of the epic Ramayana. The flag bears a picture of Mahabirji. In the beginning, the movement was very popular among Hindus and threatened communal peace. In 1927 if caused bitter communal feeling and resulted in the Bettiah riot. The *Mahabiri Dals* are still found in the district but have lost much of its original ill feelings.

Snake Worship.

There is a Hindu mythological belief that there is a king of snakes which holds the earth on its head. They feel obliged to it for keeping the earth on its head and thus helping the snakes in living. It is believed that this king of snakes, called Sheshanag, loves to take milk and fried paddy. This food is offered during a *puja* to the snakes in the month of *Sravan*.

Tree Worship.

Certain trees like *pipal,* banyan and *amla* are worshipped by the villagers. The *pipal* tree is considered to be holy and nobody generally cuts it down or uses its wood for fuel. Spirits are believed to live on *pipal* trees and they are worshipped if they happen to be in the village or outside it near a temple, etc. There are some people who regularly pour water at the root of *pipal* trees in the belief that Ram's devotee, Hanumanjee, would be pleased with them one day and bestow superhuman powers on them and help them in getting salvation. Other trees are significant for specific reasons. Generally they are worshipped because they are considered to be the abode of a particular god, deity or ghost. Women offer *puja* under such trees at the time of marriage and birth in the family. In this way they hope to win the support and help of the spirit living on the trees at the time of marriage and birth. Some trees are worshipped for getting a child. Generally such trees are very old and big. The basis is an erotic idea.

Witchcraft.

There is still a popular belief in witchcraft influencing the daily life. There is a notion among the villagers that by practising certain rites and by enchanting certain *mantras* on the cremation ground during the period of *Dashera* and *Diwali* festivals, a man or woman can attain the superhuman power. Some near or dear one is believed to be sacrificed by the practitioner of the craft in the beginning after which alone that superhuman power is bestowed. Children are supposed to be their easy prey and every mother tries to keep her child away from any woman who is supposed to know this art. There are certain methods of protection, such as applying black ointment in the eyes, tying black strings on the forearm of the child and wearing certain metallic ornaments containing blessed ashes or a piece of paper with *mantras* written on it. When a child falls ill and is supposed to be under the influence of some witch, a priest or a *tantric* is called or the help of some deity is invoked to ward off the effects. Fantastic stories of cure by such methods make the unsophisticated village-folks have firm faith in the art. In many cases of serious illness in a village a *tantric* is seen doing something simultaneously with a surgeon or a physician and at times the former is more relied upon than the latter.

Christians.

The Catholic Mission in Champaran district has a very interesting history, as it is a lineal descendant of the great Capuchin Mission which had gone to Lhasa in Tibet and Nepal at the beginning of the eighteenth century. The Mission was established at Bettiah in December, 1745, by the Rev. Father Joseph Mary (Giuseppe Maria dei Bernini), Italian Capuchin Father. He came to India in 1740 and was first stationed for two years in Patna where he made the acquaintance of Dhurup Singh, Raja of Bettiah, and treated and cured his wife from some illness. Dhurup Singh wanted him to stay in Bettiah, but the Father refused to do so unless sanction was obtained from Rome. He was transferred in 1742 to Lhasa, and in the meantime both the Raja and the Superior of the Mission wrote to Rome for permission to establish a Christian station at Bettiah, the

Raja asking the Pope to send two Capuchin Fathers there. Eventually the Superior of the Mission opened a Mission in Bettiah in 1745. The Capuchin Fathers had to abandon Lhasa on account of the persecution of the Tibetans and took refuge in Nepal, whence Father Joseph Mary was sent to Bettiah. He arrived there on the 7th December, 1745 and the Raja assigned him a house with a garden near his palace and allowed him to preach and make converts. This work Father Joseph Mary carried on with the occasional assistance of a second Capuchin Father until his death in 1761. When the English took Bettiah in 1766, Sir Robert Barker, who was in command of the forces, assigned the mission about 60 *bighas* in the fort and also a plot of land outside Bettiah, called Dassiya Padri, extending over 200 *bighas* for the support of themselves and their Christian converts. These grants were approved and renewed by the Governor-General in Council at Calcutta in 1786. The mission is still in possession of these lands with the exception of about 10 *bighas* of which they were deprived in 1792 by the then Raja. In 1892 Bettiah was made the headquarters of the Prefecture Apostolic of Bettiah and Nepal which was made over to the Capuchin Fathers of the Tyroless province.

At the beginning of the Great War in 1914 the Austrian Capuchins of Bettiah and Chuhari were interned and a year later expatriated. Their place was taken by the Belgian Capuchins from Lahore, with the very Reverend Father Fellix as Prefect Apostolic. They were assisted by six Indian priests, residents of Bettiah, who had been ordained between 1907 and 1914. In 1931 Bettiah was included in the new Diocess of Patna which was inaugurated by the Holy See in that year. The first Bishop of Diocess was the Right Rev. Dr. Loss Ven Hoeck. The Bettiah Mission was in the jurisdiction of the society of Jesus of the American province of Misouri. As this province was afterwards subdivided, the Patna Mission is dependent on the Chicago Province. Since 1921 the Mission has expanded their educational activities in Bettiah subdivision.

The Jesuit personnel of the Bettiah Mission reside either at the Bettiah Parish or Krist Raja High School area and consists of American and Indian Jesuits. At the Bettiah Parish there are a number of Jesuit Fathers who take care of the Christian Community of Bettiah town numbering about 4,000 souls. Besides, the Fathers conduct a Middle School which is the largest Middle School in the State of Bihar with an enrolment of over 1,000 students. The Mission also manages a printing press which was established over fifty years ago. Krist Raja High School situated about 2 miles from Bettiah was founded in 1931, and has at present a number of Jesuit Fathers, Scholastics and Lay Brothers on the school staff. It is one of the best schools in the State. It has a well-kept compound with good arboriculture.

The Holy Cross European Sisters conduct at Bettiah St. Teresa's High School for Girls, and a Middle Training School for Lady

Teachers, a Charitable Dispensary for outdoor patients and St. Rita's Knitting School. Excellent work is being done by these institutions.

In 1934, in the Great Bihar Earthquake, the century old Church built by the Italian Capuchins was destroyed. In November, 1951, the formal opening of the new Bettiah Church in Bettiah was held. The Church building is a noble structure and one of the finest churches in North India. Its style is an adaptation of the Byzantine to Indian Architecture. The Central tower rises 72 feet high and is surmounted by a large silver dome which covers the four famous bells which when rung are heard for many miles around Bettiah. These bells were salvaged from the destruction of the Church after the Earthquake in 1934. One of the bells is a present from Nepal. The overall length of the new church is 243 feet, while its width is 60 feet. The altars are made from Italian marble while the floor of the church is in Terazza marble and marble tile. Because of its structure and environs in church it is a place well worth a visit by the non-Christians.

At Fakirana, about two miles from Bettiah town, the Sisters have an orphanage and home for destitute women. An Indian Congregation of Sisters, called the Sisters of the Sacred Heart, was founded in 1924 with its headquarters also at Fakirana. There are about 80 Indian Sisters in the Congregation who are employed either in teaching or nursing in hospitals and dispensary work. The Bettiah Zanana Hospital owes a lot to their devoted service.

Other Roman Catholic Centres in Champaran are at Chainpatia, Chuhari, Chakni and Rampur with a total population of about 1,500 at these places taken together. There is besides, the Assemblies of God Mission with a centre only at Bettiah. Their flock numbers nearly 300. This is a non-Catholic mission.

DAILY LIFE.

Recent Trends.

The daily life that is prevalent at the present time, either in towns or in villages, in the district is somewhat different from the daily life in vogue fifty years back, the change being more perceptible in the urban areas and the newly sprung up townships. Some of the factors that have brought about the changes are the spread of western education with all its corollaries, growth of libraries and places of amusement, the influence of the press, trends in the economic condition of the people and improvement in communications. Another social factor is a slow disintegration of some of the communities, particularly in the villages. There has been a remarkable change in the social values of castes and communities. The land reforms policy of the Government has also been an important factor in minimising the social and economic influence of the intermediaries like zamindars. At one time the zamindar and the high caste men, both in the rural as well as in the urban areas of the district, were the natural leaders of the public. The English educated people had a fascination for the villagers. But at the moment it cannot be said that there is anything like natural leadership being exclusive to any caste or community. Incidence of unemployment among the English educated people has depreciated their premium in the villages. The influence of the press, particularly the vernacular press, has brought about changes in the mental outlook affecting the daily life.

The much neglected villages have now attracted the attention of the Government and the desertion by the zamindars and the richer people for the towns has been to some extent compensated. Decentralisation of administration and the policy to uplift the rural life have touched the village life. The system of *Gram Panchayat* has a great role to play in raising the status of the villages. In many a big villages, a Block Development Officer, a Karmchari, a Mukhiya, a Gram Sevak, a Co-operative Inspector, a Veterinary Assistant, a Medical Officer, a Health Assistant, an Overseer, etc., may be found. This picture is quite different from what we had a decade before, when in the rural area the only static official normally was the police thana officer. With the emphasis on development work the villages have assumed a new role and will go on playing a bigger role in the future.

Another factor affecting the village life is the fairs and *melas*. North Bihar is famous for fairs and *melas* and Champaran is no exception. Whether originating in economic, religious or social reasons, these *melas* and fairs do not appear to have lost their importance. They still attract a vast floating population and there is always a large turnover of saleable commodities, including livestock. A description of many important fairs and *melas* has been given in a separate chapter. The Areraj *mela* attracts thousands of visitors from beyond the district.

The *melas* and fairs bring to the village communities the commodities which have now become a part and parcel of the village household. Articles, like lantern, torch, bicycle, better types of shoes, various toilet articles, etc., have a very good sale. In spite of better communication facilities that have cut out the distance between the urban markets and the villages, the *melas* and fairs have still their fascination for the rural public. They have also affected the social life of the people and have helped break the rigours of casteism and orthodox habits. They have also helped to liquidate the strict *parda* system to a very great extent. The *melas* and fairs are more patronised by the women-folk.

The daily life of the people varies according to different status and avocations of the castes or classes. Rich people, whether in the urban or in the rural areas, will have a different routine than that of a poor man, a day labourer or an office assistant or a petty shopkeeper. In the urban areas the common pattern of daily life of the intelligentsia class of people is that the person rises early in the morning and gets ready after his bath and breakfast within an hour. He reads the newspaper or has some chat and then turns to the call of his profession. By 10 A.M., he is ready after a meal for his place of business. In the evening he will probably study, visit friends or a club or some amusement centre or spend the evening with the family. This is the usual routine for a doctor, a pleader, a school or college teacher, a businessman and a Government servant. A lawyer or a doctor will have to deny himself the pleasures of social amenities sometime after dusk because of the demand of his profession. Usually a businessman stays at the place of his business till quite late in the night. Amusements, like cinemas or theatricals, will not be normally resorted to as a part of daily life. Probably once or twice a week one will pay a visit to the local amusements. The Sundays or other holidays are usually spent in resting or visiting friends or some amusement centre. Taking holidays over a continued period to break the monotony of daily life is still rather uncommon to the average man. With the development of tourism and travel facilities, for which Champaran district has got ample facilities, that is, however, likely to develop.

The office assistants or the persons associated with the offices, courts, etc., in the towns have a regular pattern of life. By 9-30 A.M. or so he is to get ready for office and after a quick meal he will be in the office by 10-30 A.M. In the noon he takes a cup of tea with probably some snacks. His evening is spent in reading cheap literature or playing some indoor game.

A daily labourer in the town starts his work early in the morning and returns by 6 P.M. or so. His meal is either taken to the site by his people or he has to take some dry food, like *chura, sattu* or *bhunja* with him. The labourer in the town has seldom an opportunity to have a noon-day meal at his house on a working day. Usually by the evening he comes back very tired and has to relax himself.

The daily life of a big land-owner or a big farmer in the countryside starts early in the morning. He will normally supervise the work of the labourers. If he is a petty land-owner he will usually do a part of the manual work. Village politics and his own cultivation affairs take away most of his time.

The labourer in a village takes some food cooked over night, locally known as *basia,* early in the morning and goes for his work. He works in the field whole day and usually has no proper mid-day meal. If at all a noon-day meal is taken to him by the woman-folk of his family, this meal usually consists of cooked rice and probably some spinach (*sag*). He comes back home in the evening and after a wash he has his substantial meal in the night and retires. This meal will also consist of cooked rice, probably a little *dal* and some vegetables. The evening meal is usually taken quite early and by

8 P.M. or so a labourer's household will cease for the day. The woman-folk of his family would add a little to the family income by working in the house of some rich neighbour. They would keep themselves busy in cooking food, washing clothes, looking after the children and doing a little marketing. They would also scrape grass for fodder and pluck some leaves for the same purpose.

The average town-wage earner would go to his place of work after taking some snacks, the quality of which depends on the financial means of a family. If he is a mechanic, or a mason or a carpenter or belongs to a slightly higher wage-group, he would probably have some *chapatis* of wheat, some vegetables, or some *gur* and cup of tea. Some of them also take a hastily cooked meal of rice. This type of wage earner goes to his work with some *chapatis* for his mid-day meal. He takes his substantial meal in the night on return from work and this consists of rice, *dal,* some vegetables and very rarely meat or some fish. Meat or fish or even *dal,* however, does not find place in the daily menu of an ordinary wage-earner, whether in the town or in the village, whose income ranges between Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2 per day.

The women-folk apart from the work indicated before, also supplement the income by keeping goat and poultry, particularly of the Muslim community, if there are facilities. If the wage earner of the lower income-group belongs to a caste which does not observe *parda,* the women-folk would probably add to the family income by hawking fruits or vegetables.

Food and Cooking.

It is not financially possible for a lower income-group to have a balanced diet and generally the food taken is deficient in protein. The size and income of a middle class family, whether of lower income group or of higher income group, both in urban and rural areas, control the daily menu. Rice, *chapati, dal,* some vegetables and probably some milk form the usual menu with an occasional variation with a very small quantity of fish or meat or sweets. Eggs have not yet become an ordinary item of food in the rural area.

Among the cereals used, rice ranks easily the first and then comes wheat, maize and *marua.* Fish and meat are the principal items of non-vegetarian food. Game birds, chicken, ducks, eggs, etc., hardly come in the ordinary menu. Fruits also are not a common item of the dietary excepting probably plantain or mango during the season, provided they are cheap. Sweet potatoes, *sattu, litti* (wheat flour shaped like a small ball stuffed with *sattu* and spices and baked in the fire without the help of any utensils), *chura* and *dahi* (curd) occupies the first position in the menu of the average man. Milk is a common item for those who could afford. Milk is consumed in its original form and also in the form of curd, *ghee,* butter and *chena.* The milk of both cows and buffaloes is used.

Potato, *parwal,* lady's finger, *lauki, komhra,* brinjal and cauliflower are the common vegetables. The use of onion is becoming common. *Salad,* consisting of slices of tomato, onion, etc., with lemon juice or vinegar has already come into use even in the villages.

Several methods of cooking are in vogue. Roasting in fire is one of the primitive methods of cooking, but is now confined to making what is known as *chokha* by adding salt, mustard oil and green or red pepper to the potato or brinjal or any other kind of vegetables roasted. Some grains, such as wheat, barley, gram and maize are scorched and used as food (*norna*). Among the roasted food *litti* stands first. Frying is also a common method and grains, like rice, flat-rice, gram, maize, peas, etc., are usually fried and taken. This goes by the name of *bhunja.* Frying with *ghee* or oil but without water is resorted to usually for preparing vegetables known as *bhunjia* or *chakka* (big flat pieces of vegetables coated with *besan*).

Another process which is coming into use is stewing vegetables or meat in closely covered pots with *ghee* or oil or any other cooking medium and some condiments or just in water. This mode of cooking is more or less confined to the middle and upper class families with an acquired taste for food without *masala* or spices. Another method of cooking is to steam vegetables or meat in a closed cooker or in a closed utensil. *Ghee,* mustard oil, hydrogenated oil, etc., are the usual cooking medium.

Food is ordinarily cooked on an oven made of clay or bricks with two mouths and an opening below. Fuel is fed through the opening below and food are put in pots at the two mouths and are prepared simultaneously.

Meat is prepared in various ways. Tasty, well-seasoned, highly spiced, *kabab, korma, don-piyaja* and curry are the legacy of the Muslim cooking. Roast, stew, cutlet, steak, chops, etc., have come into the menu from the west. Fish is also prepared in various similar ways.

Vegetarian food has also several variety, some of which may be mentioned here. There are various kinds of sweets and *kheers* or puddings prepared from milk. Special kinds of puddings are prepared with the help of milk, *ghee* and dry fruits like *pista, kismis, badam,* etc., *kachauri* or *pooree,* wheaten cakes prepared in *ghee* or oil (poorer section of the people use oil), are very much liked. *Pooree* stuffed with powdered gram or *sattu* or pulse with some spices and prepared in *ghee* is supposed to be a delicacy. This is also offered to deities. *Polao,* a preparation with rice and *ghee,* water and spices is very much liked. Sometimes some vegetables are also mixed in the rice to make *polao* more tasty. *Halwa,* a preparation of *sujji, ghee,* sugar and dry fruits, constitute a special dish of vegetarian foods. There are several methods to prepare *halwa* of different constituents. *Halwa* is also prepared of different kinds of fruits

Apart from these, there is an elaborate arrangement of vegetables, among which *raita* (a preparation of curd and pumpkin with spices); *karhi-bari* (a preparation of curd and powdered pulse with condiments); various kinds of *papars* (a very finely and flattened circular shaped stuff, prepared out of powdered pulse and fried in *ghee* or oil or without them); *tilauri* (a preparation of thoroughly pulverised *til* and fried in *ghee* or oil); *danauri* (a preparation of pulverised *dana* or poppy seeds, fried in *ghee* or oil); *adauri* (a preparation of pulverised pulse used as a combination of potato or other vegetables); *kumharauri* (a preparation of *kumhar* used as a combination of different kinds of vegetables), etc., could be specially mentioned.

The culinary condiments which are generally used in the preparation of savoury dishes are turmeric, cumin seeds, red-pepper, black-pepper, ginger, cardamoms, both big and small, cloves, coriander-seeds, cinnamon, nutmeg, mace, cassia, cubeb, mustard, saffron, onion, garlic, and green chillies.

The utensils used for cooking in common household are *battlohis*, cauldron of brass or iron, flat pans, tongs, *jhanjh*, etc.

A special room is set apart, if accommodation permits, for kitchen and the verandah is commonly used for dining where food is served hot and quick from the kitchen. In the villages commonly no cook is employed. Female-folks do this job. In towns also cook is rarely kept now. The domestic servant is utilised for the job who generally comes from low Hindu castes, viz., Dhanuks, Kurmis, etc. Cooks and servants in the urban areas can now be kept only by people of higher income group.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

Economic pressure has left little room for entertainments. Population has increased enormously but there has not been much expansion in the field of production. Wants of common man have also increased without any commensurate rise in income. A lot of leisure is spent in idle talks and local politics. However, as the simple village folks are very much God fearing, they devote a part of their time in *bhajans, keertans, Satyanarayana Puja,* etc. Many of them assemble at a place having some religious sanctity, like temple, venerated old trees in the village, etc., and engage themselves in *bhajans and keertans*. There they sing all sorts of religious folk-songs and enchant passages of the Ramayana. The *Satyanarayana Puja* is generally arranged individually. At this *puja Satyanarayana Katha,* a book in Sanskrit narrating the beneficial effects of devotion to God, is enchanted. The meaning is communicated to the attendants in vernacular language. The *Satyanarayana Puja* is also accompanied by *keertans* and *bhajans.*

Jatra parties, a kind of theatrical, different other kinds of theatricals and *Ramleela,* the drama exhibiting the life of Rama, have a strange fascination for village folks. Cinema shows are a great attraction for villagers as well as for town dwellers, but the former can scarcely afford for it.

INFLUENCE OF COURTS.

A section of the middle class people of the country-side is in the habit of attending the court and this appears to be both a necessity and a form of entertainment. Usually in the villages there are professional *pairbikars* or people who work as go-betweens and are the link between the lawyers and the litigant public.These *pairbikars* take the parties with them, visit the lawyer's house, get the case prepared, spend the whole day in the court and come back home by the evening. They have a busy life.

LADIES.

Ladies of the house of a middle class family, both in the urban and rural areas, have to do a lot of household work. They have to cook meal, look after children, clean the house, wash, mend and sew clothes, do the embroidery work, make *achars* (pickles), *burees, morabbas,* etc. A middle class family can hardly indulge in too many servants. They generally keep one whole-time servant or a maid-servant, either whole-time or part-time. Males, girls and boys, seldom do any household work. Girls in towns are generally sent to schools and they could be drawn upon only on Sundays and holidays. On account of economic pressure spending time in making artistic things is not resorted to. It is quite common for the ladies to knit sweaters, mufflers, hose, etc. Music and dance is not a common feature. However, the cinema is making girls music minded. Spread of female education has definitely led to a better tone in the average middle class family, a distinct change for the better in food, dress and mode of living.

TOILET.

The common village-folks are very simple and hardly use any toilet. The little oil they use is either of mustard, coconut, *til,* or any other ordinary scented oil. Soap is becoming more popular, both for washing clothes and cleansing the body. Cosmetics are seldom in demand by the male-folks. However, ladies of the present generation do use little bit of cheap cosmetics. In towns cosmetics are in great demand by the ladies. *Itr* or musk is used only on ceremonial occasions. Use of soap is pushing out *sajimati* (a kind of clay) and *ritha* (soap berry) which were in common use before. Shampooing hair with certain indigenous herbs is still popular. Bottled shampoo has not yet made much headway. Tooth paste is very rarely used and that also in towns. Lip-stick, rouge, etc., are not in common use except by some ladies in towns.

DRESS, ETC.

Shoes are not in common use among the labourers or the people of lower income-group. However, they are commonly used by the middle class people, both in the towns and villages, particularly when going out of the house. There has not been much change in the wearing apparel of ladies, excepting in the cut of the dress and the mode of wearing. Use of *shalwar* and *dopatta* is becoming more popular, particularly for the young girls in towns. During the last war, owing to scarcity and high prices of *dhoties,* men-folk started wearing trousers and this has stuck. A pair of trousers last longer and are more economical in the long run than a pair of *dhoties.* Use of half-pants and shirts is also in vogue now for school-going children. Boys in the colleges wear trousers which was very unusual thirty years back. Buttoned up or open-neck coat is becoming a casualty among the younger generation and bush-shirts are replacing them. Open-neck shirts, mostly half-sleeved, a pair of trousers, or *dhoties* or *paijamas* are the usual costume of the average middle class males. The western costume of trousers, shirt with tie and an open-neck coat for office purposes is being replaced by trousers and bush-shirt or buttoned up coat. For ceremonial occasions men wear *kurta* or *dhoti* or *paijama* or *sherwani* and *churidar paijama* or a buttoned up short coat (prince coat) and a trousers. Use of turban or cloth cap for the head is distinctly on the decline. On such occasions the ladies wear costly *sarees,* blouse, etc., and get their finger nails painted by the barber woman or themselves with *mehdi* leaf decoction or imported nail-paints. Jewellery is more used by the ladies while going out of the house. *Upten,* a paste made of several ingredients, is still used by ladies for their face.

ORNAMENTS.

Ornaments for Males.

There have been significant changes in the use of ornaments for both men and women.

Fifty years back every well-to-do male of certain communities used to wear ornaments. Male ornaments were not confined to childhood or youth alone. They were used irrespective of the age.

Male ornaments were meant only for arms, neck, waist, wrist, ears and feet. Ornaments for arms included *chakutha, bank, tabiz, anant* and *lapet.* All these ornaments, excepting *anant,* used to be worn singly. The *tabiz* was used more for protection against certain spiritual evils than to adorn the arm. Now only *tabiz* is commonly used and *lapet* is used by some well-to-do males of certain communities. Ornaments for neck consisted of *rudrachh* (*Eelcocarpus ganitrus*), *kantha* (solid gold or silver piece and often with some sacred relics), necklace or corals (locally known as *munga*), *mohar mala* (string of *mohars* or gold coin), *gop* or *ghunsi* (twisted gold wire), and *sikri* (gold or silver chain often with filigree work). All these have now disappeared, excepting the *kantha* for boys and the chain for the males of some well-to-do families of certain communities. Ornaments for waist was known as *harhara, jai,* etc. They have completely disappeared, excepting for boys. Ornaments for wrist were named as *balea, bera, mathia* and *tora.* They were exclusively meant for boys and are still in use. Ornaments for ears were *long, kanfools,* etc., and were confined to boys alone but are now gradually vanishing. Ornaments for feet were known as *ghunghru, kara, rings,* etc., of silver and were confined to boys alone. They are also now gradually vanishing.

The ornaments that are in current use are gold or silver wrist-watch and rings. Those who could afford wear rings bejewelled with precious stones.

Ornaments for Females.

The incidence of casualty in female ornaments has been much less. Several ornaments that had their bad days are now again coming in vogue, of course, in a modern style. *Bunni* or *mangtika* (an ornament covering the vermilion mark on the forehead), *mukut* (crown like ornament), *tikuli* or *bindi* (spangle or wafer gummed on the forehead), and several nose ornaments like *nakchanda* or *chhuchhi, nathiya, bulak* or *besar,* etc., could be counted among such ornaments which have staged a come back with some change in structure.

It could be said that there is no part in lady's body left uncovered by clothes for which an ornament is not available to decorate. Naturally there is an elaborate arrangement of ornaments for hand, forehead, nose, ears, neck, arms, forearms, wrist, fingers, waist, ankles, toe and other fingers.

Head ornaments are *tika, mangtika, mukut,* etc. They are used by only young ladies and that also casually, specially on ceremonial occasions. The spangle or wafer is pasted in between the two brows. This is meant for every day use and is very much liked by young ladies. The nose is very commonly decorated with the nose-pins, often bejewelled with cheap stones. *Nathia* is used casually by the woman in general, but is more common among Marwari young ladies. The ear ornaments are named as *jhimjhimiya, machhiya, dhela, jhumak, kanfool, kanbali, mankari,* etc.. Of these the first three and the like which are very heavy for the ears, are now very rarely seen and that also among the ladies of backward class. New ear ornaments of lighter weight and fascinating designs, sometimes bejewelled with precious stones, are more commonly seen now.

The neck is the most favoured part in female physiognomy to decorate with ornaments. There have been considerable casualties in the ornaments for the neck. The ornaments used earlier were *tikh, takh, hasuli* or *suit, champakali, chaukthi, humel, hekal, jogni, sikri, chandrahar, mala, sautin,* etc., made of silver or gold. They are no longer in use. Nevertheless they have staged a come-back in more modernised form and lighter weight and usually of gold. The *sautin* among all was used only by the second wife of a man whose first wife had died. This was used to ward off the evil effects and not to decorate. However, this is not much in use now.

Ornaments for the arms consisted of *panchkhandi, navrattan, anant, bank, jasan, bajuband, bijouth, pait, kusiar-akgeri, tinkhandi,* etc. This elaborate arrangement is now gradually vanishing. Ornaments, for the forearms and wrist were known as *ageli, pacheli, majheli, chaan, kangani, barhari, kangana,* etc. They are very little in use now, excepting a few. Fingers were decorated with several rings, probably three to four in each finger. This has given way to one or two of gold, often bejewelled with precious stones. The ornaments for waist consisted of *karghani* and *darkas.* They are no longer much in use. Ornaments for the feet were *kara, chhara, jhabiya, panjebs, guchha, nupur, pair, shankar, angutha,* etc. Leaving aside a few, all have gone out of use.

SALUTATION.

The custom of salutation is an integral part of the daily life. Salutation by touching the feet or knee is supposed to be the most intimate and affectionate. Raising of both hands and touching the forehead and uttering the word '*Pranam*' or '*Namaste*' is the usual mode of salutation. It is also customary to touch each other as a mode of affection and salutation. Exchange of smile is also a recognised form of greeting. If two equals meet, the usual mode of salutation may be just touching each other with their right hand.

Hermits or *gurus* or other saintly people are usually saluted by uttering the word '*dandwat*' and by joining the two hands, lowering the body and touching their feet. Previously caps or turbans used to be taken off when salutations were offered to the superiors or at the temples. This mode of salutation is dying out.

HOUSING AND HOUSEHOLD.

Changes are seen in the pattern of houses and household, particularly in the urban areas. The traditional house with a few rooms, narrow verandah, and a courtyard with a well, kitchen, lavatory and cowshed is now better planned, although the floor space has become less. The use of cement is common and the low mud and brick house with lime is being replaced by cemented concrete smaller houses. Owing to the great demand for residential houses flat system has been superimposed on houses which were not built for that purpose and not much privacy is allowed. The part of the house in towns which is neglected is the bath-room. Even in big residential houses very small bath-rooms are to be seen. Housing conditions are rather exacting in every town and for the average family the house rent paid represents a big percentage of income. Although living in flats is gradually coming in vogue with difficulties about sharing of entrance, kitchen, bath-room, lavatory, well or tap, there is no sign of community cooking coming in. Even in a small house, where there are several occupants, everyone has a separate cooking arrangement. Yet this system of sharing houses goes to break down many social conventions and caste barriers.

There has not been much change in the pattern of houses in the villages. Richer people who are building cemented concrete houses in the villages are adopting the models in vogue in towns adding certain rural features. There is more of living space per inmate in houses in the rural area. The poors live in very small huts in insanitary conditions.

Another sign of the upgrading of the standard of living is in the provision of more furniture in the household both in rural and urban areas. The average family has some furniture in the house consisting of bedstead, tables and chairs. However, in the villages, tables and chairs are a rarity. But in the towns there will be found one or two benches, tables, a couple of stools or chairs even in the household of a man of lower income-group. The sophisticated families of higher income-group have the proper furniture for the drawing, dining and other rooms.

Eating Places.

A remarkable new feature in the town is the growth in the number of tea, *pan* and *sharbat* stalls and cheap eating places which often make encroachment on public roads. Owing to congestion in the towns many people have to come from villages every day to attend their daily duties and have to take their snack meal at these eatings houses. Usually fried food (*pakorahs*), cheap snacks, *sharbat* or tea or a simple hot cooked meal are available in them. A number of Punjabi hotels and Bengalee sweetmeat shops have grown up in the urban areas.

Tea, *lussee* (cold drink of curd) and *sharbat* are the usual drinks served in restaurants and hotels. Coffee has not made much headway. The big towns in the district each have one or two bars where stronger drinks are available. The *bhatikhana* or the country liquor shops are common feature in every town and also in some of the larger villages. *Tari* shops are very commonly found in the towns as well as in the villages.

Drinking and Smoking.

Tea has become very common in the middle class family and in the group of people belonging to the class of mechanics, drivers and other hard manual labourers. It has not yet become a habit with the cultivating class or the lower income-group in the villages. Coffee is confined to a very small percentage of middle class families in the urban areas. Cold drinks or *sharbat* are used very casually and more on the ceremonial occasions in the average middle class family. Cold drinks prepared with various kinds of seeds of flowers, rose petals, almond, curd and sugar are in vogue. Aerated water is confined to townships. *Bhang* is also a beverage indulged in, but more on the ceremonial occasions, particularly on *puja, holi* and *diwali* days, and is followed by spicy dishes of meat. The consumption of country liquor is not common in the middle class family. Daily labourers in towns do indulge in country liquors. Foreign liquors are confined to the higher income-group of the urban areas. *Tari* or fermented palm juice is a popular drink in the summer season. *Tari* is the poor man's beer.

The habit of smoking is spreading particularly among the younger generation. Smoking of *biri* and cheap cigarettes is very common among the labourers. Ladies of some castes also smoke *hookka* or hubble bubble. However, *biri* and cigarettes are replacing it. Chewing tobacco is very popular among the cultivating labourers. Chewing of *pan* is very common and the expenditure of the common middle class family on it is not inconsiderable. Cigars and pipe smoking have a very restricted circle of adherents.

HOBBIES.

Reading of books and newspapers has yet to become a habit in the average educated family, whether in the rural or the urban areas. No daily newspapers are published in this district. The libraries, although very few are not well patronised. Cheap books on light subjects, particularly novels in Hindi or English, have, however, some attraction. Gardening as a hobby has yet to make a headway. Indoor games like playing cards, chess, etc., are the usual hobby. Among the outdoor games football is most popular, particularly among the student community.

Radio sets are still luxury both in the urban and rural areas. Radio sets are switched on more for film songs or news than for the educative talks. As already mentioned, amusements and entertainments hardly form a regular feature in the life of common man, excepting in the urban areas. Popular lectures, art exhibitions and cultural shows have not yet become a regular part of the civic life, The common man, however, has practically no hobby even if he can afford it.

FOLK LITERATURE AND PASTORAL SONGS.

Pastoral songs have still a prominent role in the daily life of the villagers. They are full-throated songs by men and women while working in the field at transplantation of paddy or harvesting the crops. The theme is generally a love episode or a famous battle of the past. Sweet and melodious, they are often in the form of question and answer. They are important for the musical value. These unrecorded lyrics are handed down from generation to generation by word of mouth. Many songs have been lost.

With the advent of spring in the month of March men begin to sing a type of song full of mirth, joy and rather suggestive appeal to women. The song is known as *holi*. This is sung till the festival of *holi* at the end of the month of *Falgun*. *Holi* is not sung in any other season. With the *rabi* harvest ready in the field in the month of *Chaitra,* another type of song, known as *chaiti,* are sung. These songs weave a thread round the romantic love of the newly wed couples or lovers. This goes on till the harvesting and threshing of *rabi* crop. It marks the close of the cycle of harvest and a fresh start is made by sowing new crops which require water after a few weeks or so. Songs sung during this season, i.e., before the rains set in in the month of *Asarh* and also during the rainy season, viz., *Shravan* and *Bhado,* depict cloudy scenes, torrential rains and thunders of the cloud. This is known as *kajli*. Women have their own set of songs for this season. They often sing on *Jhoolas* (swings) and sing *kajli.* Sometimes when rains are delayed the women folk come out of the village in groups and sing songs invoking the pleasure of the rain-gods. This is known as *jata-jatin.*

Labourers, both men and women, are fond of singing while paddy transplantation goes in the field. They have special type of songs for this occasion. Women sing songs full of humour and jokes while men sing romantic amorous songs inviting their sweet-hearts to come and join them in the pleasant weather. A special type of song, known as *birha,* indicating the pangs of separation between lover and a loved, is also sung. Generally the singers go on composing when they sing. There is not much of established version. These songs are not very rhythmic and methodical.

Quite a number of pastoral and folk songs are very good example of imagination. There are some long descriptive songs delineating chivalrous character of some imaginary personality of the past ages. Stories of Alha and Kunwar Vijayee are available in book form. They and the songs of *loric* are very popular. Many villagers have got one or two persons who remember the whole story in verse by heart. Sometimes they go on singing such songs for the whole night at the pressing demands. They sing them at the pitch of the voice and louder the tone the better is its effect on the audience. They are not accompanied by any musical instrument. Nothing is known about the composer of these verses.

The songs of one or two remarkable authors, such as Bhikhari Thakur, in people's everyday language have become very popular. These songs are about village life, methods of cultivation and some undesirable practices, such as early marriage, dowry system, etc. They have acted as a powerful satire on many habits of the villagers. Another important writing is the anonymous '*Bideshia Natak*'.

Cinema songs have gained popularity and they seem to be slowly supplanting the folk-songs. The younger generation does not appear to be impressed by the old music in comparison with the new tilt in cinema songs. Cinema songs have not, however, got a lasting hold. One popular song is soon replaced by another. The old folk-songs are nearer to the life of the villagers and give a truer picture of their life, culture and habits.

A tendency to enrich folk-literature in regional languages has been noticed in recent few years among the poets of acknowledged status. They have attempted to produce folk-songs, but their creations are easily distinguishable from the old folk-songs which are unsophisticated and natural expression of a villager's sentiments.

THE PLANTERS AND ZAMINDARS.

As has been mentioned before there were a large number of European planters and a number of big and small zamindars in Champaran district. The majority of the European planters left the district with the liquidation of indigo plantation. A handful had lingered for some years more as gentlemen-farmers or zamindars but they have also now gone away. The institution of zamindari was abolished by statutory law and most of the zamindars are now farmers. Bettiah Raj which had the largest zamindari in the district was under Court of Wards for decades and now the Bettiah Raj has escheated to the State Government. Although these institutions stand liquidated now, there is no doubt that they had contributed a lot towards building up the social and economic life of the district which regulates the daily life of the present generation. The European planters had good roads, consolidated holdings and better type of agriculture. They had also encouraged better animal husbandry and sportsmanship. The zamindars and particularly the Bettiah Raj have given most of the charitable and educational institutions of the district. By patronising fine arts, the landlords and particularly the Bettiah Raj had kept up the flow of culture from the past. There is no doubt that some of the landlords had amply fufilled their social obligations as mentioned in their old *Kabuliats*. The Bar had supplied the intelligent leadership.

This district has always had a certain amount of social and trade contact with Nepal. That mountainous country was opened up by the early Roman Catholic Fathers and British administrators who had mostly kept up the contacts through the soil of Champaran. In the good old days when there was hardly any excise duty there was a considerable trade and commerce with Nepal through the various contact posts in Champaran district. The early postal communication with Nepal was maintained through Champaran. The borders of Nepal were well-defined by fixing up the boundaries in the second decade of the twentieth century only.

GENERAL.

This district has a very good soil and a considerable area of forests. Excepting sugar industries there is no other large-scale manufacture although there are the possibilities of tanning and timber manufacture on a large scale within the district. The excellent grazing grounds of Champaran ensure a good breed of animals provided other precautions are taken. The hide industry of Champaran has its importance and particularly the kid hide of Champaran has got a great demand abroad. With the availability of cheap power there is no reason why the excellent timber of the forests of Champaran, both hard and soft, cannot open up a manufacturing line. This district has certain prospects for the cultivation of jute. The East Pakistan refugees settled in Bettiah subdivision came from districts of East Pakistan where jute is very commonly grown. The problem of resettlement of the displaced persons is still having its teething troubles, but once that stage is over it could be expected that the settled displaced persons will add to the agricultural prosperity of the district.

The overall prosperity of the district will depend on a simultaneous and healthy development of both urban and rural areas. There has already been a certain influence of the upgrading of some of the rural areas through the efforts of the Community Projects, National Extension Service Blocks and a certain amount of decentralisation of administration to the Anchals and Gram Panchayats. The availability of cheap electricity in the rural areas will go a great way in upgrading the life of the inhabitants in the rural areas. The district lives in the villages and the ruling force of the villages is in the hands of the women-folk. The ultimate problem is to educate and to enlighten the women-folk if the general upgrading of the community is to be solved. The Christian Missionaries were able to upgrade the life of the women of the Christian Church. Education has already been spread to the villages and there is no doubt that the beginning has been made to educate the women-folk but there is still a lot to be done. The Gandak Project which has now been decided upon with the consent of Nepal Government will bring more irrigation, electricity, industrialisation and a general upgrading of all that constitute life. With the opening of the communications and particularly the air passage to Nepal through Raxaul, this district will play a large role in maintaining the good relationship of India with Nepal. There is already a plan to extend the railways to Bhaisanlotan which will lose its sylvan and rustic grandeur with the implementation of the Gandak Project.

CHAPTER IV.

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

The population of Champaran district is predominantly agricultural. To arrive at the actual population dependent on agriculture we have to look into the decennial census tables. It may, however, be observed that owing to different methods of enumeration and occupational classification adopted in different census operations, they do not exactly give comparable data.

According to the census of 1891 the number of persons dependent on agriculture was 72 per cent of the total population. But in his Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations (1892—1899) C. J. Stevenson-Moore observed that this percentage was nothing less than 85. According to the census tables of 1901, the percentage of population dependent on agriculture was just above 80. But this also appears to be an underestimate if the percentage of 90 as stated in the census of 1911 is taken as fairlv correct. Mr. J. A. Sweeney in his Final Report of the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1913—1919) agreed with this percentage. Since then this percentage has continued to be more than 90 of the total population.

According to the census of 1951 the agricultural population of the district is subdivided into the following groups :—

TABLE I.

	Males.	Females.
Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	6,15,609	6,09,539
Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	1,40,364	1,41,976
Cultivating labourers and their dependents	4,16,271	4,23,097
Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents.	7,373	6,406

The allied occupations of forestry, stock raising, etc., give employment to very few persons as is seen in the following table taken from the census of 1951 :—

TABLE II.

Name of allied occupations.	Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Plantation ..	..	..	..	1	..	16	..	17
2. Forestry and wood cutting.	4	2	4	..	103	44	111	46
3. Stock raising..	..	3	34	24	118	71	152	98
4. Rearing of small animals and insects.	..	1	..	..	3	3	3	4

The following table of 1951 census shows the number of persons who derive their secondary means of livelihood from agriculture which is quite sizeable :—

TABLE III.

Number of persons deriving their secondary means of livelihood from—

	Males.	Females.
Cultivation of owned land	7,701	5,253
Cultivation of unowned land	9,032	4,708
Employment as cultivating labourers ..	35,324	20,274
Rent on agricultural land	2,098	568

The figures in Table I show that the number of persons cultivating their own land is numerically the largest group followed by the groups of cultivating labourers, cultivators of unowned land and the agricultural rent-receivers, respectively. The recent land reforms measures must have changed the numerical structure leaving the overall picture as it was.

The figures of Table II, particularly for forestry and stock-raising do not appear to be very correct. The extensive jungles and good pasturage in Champaran district might have attracted more persons to forestry and sheep-rearing. But even conceding that there may have been some error the persons employed on these occupations will not be very sizeable, changing the percentage of agricultural population.

IMPORTANCE OF RAINFALL.

Rainfall has been the most important factor in India's agricultural economy. Champaran is no exception to the rule. This district has also been subjected to the whims of monsoon so much so that in some years Champaran had a bountiful production due to sufficient rainfall and in others complete scarcity due to continued droughts. Mr. Stevenson-Moore, I.C.S., in his Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations in Champaran during 1892—1899 discusses about the importance of rainfall in Champaran's agricultural economy in the following manner :—

" Rainfall, as I have implied in my comments on the soils of the district, is the most important factor in the agricultural economy of Champaran. The importance cannot be better emphasised than by the following quotation from Mr. Macpherson's famine report :—

'The famine in Champaran was brought about by deficient and unfavourably distributed rainfall in 1895 and 1896.'

" The figures below show the normal distribution of rainfall over the several months of the year :—

	Inches.
January	.67
February	.38
March	.37
April	.77
May	2.59
June	8.19
July	11.57
August	11.94
September	9.30
October	3.54
November	.02
December	.21
Grand Total	49.55

" The heaviest fall comes between June and September, when it is required by both the autumn and winter crops. Substantial rain is also required in May and October, in May for the sowing of the autumn crops and in October to bring the *aghani* paddy to maturity and to supply moisture but not very essential.

" Unfortunately, however, the rainfall of the district is extremely capricious sometimes varying very widely from the normal. The normal rainfall given above also differs considerably from that noted for 1874 by Sir R. P. MacDonnell, as the following comparative table will show :—

	1874.	1896.
January	.60	.67
February	.34	.38
March	1.50	.37
April	.45	.77
May	2.98	2.59
June	8.35	8.19
July	11.75	11.57
August	10.39	11.94
September	11.93	9.30
October	8.16	3.54
November	0.	.02
December	.35	.21
Total	56.0	49.5

"The difference of 7.25 inches in the totals is remarkable. It is mainly accounted for by the months of September and October, the normal total for these two months in 1874 being 20.09, against 12.84 November.If it is true that the rainfall of these two important months is growing lighter, it is a very evil sign. The normal for March in 1874 too was one inch higher than now."

After giving detailed rainfall figures for the two subdivisions Mr. Stenvenson-Moore, I.C.S., reviews the following for the district as a whole :—

"The total annual fall ranges between 88.63 in 1893 and 30.84 in 1896, the normal being 49.55. 1883 and 1884 were years of deficient rainfall but were followed by three consecutive years of very abundant rain reaching the maximum (61.80) in 1887. In 1888, however, there is a sudden drop to 38.63 followed by an equally unusual rise to 78.44 in 1889. The record of 88.63 was reached in 1893. In 1894, again the fall was slightly short, succeeded by an abnormal rise to 64.92 in 1895. In the year that led to the great famine, 1896, the total fall was only 30.84 inches.

"Taking individual months too the variations are most startling. The critical months of the year are June to October. Now the normal fall for June is 8.19, but in June 1886 only 4.11 inches fell, while 22.39 inches were recorded in the corresponding month of 1889. Similarly July varies between 6.30 of 1894 and 31.92 of 1893, against the normal fall of 11.57. Perhaps September is the most capricious of all going so low as .78 in 1883, whilst rising to 29.88 in 1896, against the normal 9.30. Extreme variations are noticeable in every month with the results that even where the total rainfall reaches the normal it may be so unreasonably distributed as to cause acute distress. The following quotation from Mr. Macpherson's report fully illustrates this point :—

"Although the rainfall of 1895 to 1896 was above the normal by 17.5 per cent, it was badly distributed. It was on the whole favourable for the crops until August, but it ceased prematurely none falling after the 21st of September and not even in the *hathiya* asterism when good rain is considered essential for the autumn rice crop, and for providing moisture for the *rabi* and indigo crops. There was moreover practically no rain at all throughout the cold weather, the total fall from October to March inclusive, amounting to only half an inch.

"In both the famine years 1873-74 and 1896-97 there were serious deficiencies in the rainfall, from May to October 14.10 inches, or 30 per cent, below the normal in the former, and 19.19 inches, or over 40 per cent in the latter. As Mr. Macpherson puts it : 'The inevitable results in both the cases were acute, widespread and long distress'.

"The rainfall of the Champaran district is heavier than that of any other district of the Bihar Division. Owing to this and to the general character of the soil, the Champaran *raiyats* place a most absolute reliance on it, and make little effort, towards extraneous means to guard against its failure. But it is very capricious, and though as a consequence distress pays periodical visits to the more susceptible parts of the district, the cultivators are not spursed into effort and their absolute faith in the monsoon's beneficence remains unshaken. No wonder then that the records of the rain-gauge are most anxiously watched by the Collector of Champaran."

This exclusive dependence upon rainfall for agricultural purposes continued even to later years and Mr. L. S. S. O'Malley in his District Gazetteer for Champaran published in 1907 observed as follows :—

"For the *bhadai* and late rice harvests the distribution most favourable to agriculture the husbandman's year is when premonitory showers, falling in May or early in June, facilitate that spade husbandry which, to secure a really good crop, most precede ploughing operations. The rain in the end of June and in July should be heavy. Then should come an interval of comparatively fair weather, in which weeding operations may be successfully prosecuted. The September rains must be heavy, shading off into fine weather with October showers. On the sufficiency of the September rains, more than of any other month, depends the character of the winter rice crop. Finally, periodic showers from December to February inclusive are essential to a good *rabi* harvest (A. P. Mcdonnel, Foodgrains Supply of Bihar and Bengal, Calcutta, 1876).

"Owing to the absence of artificial irrigation the cultivators of Champaran are at a disadvantage, as compared with other parts of

Bihar. Usually the district is blessed with sufficient natural moisture, for the rainfall is heavy in normal years. Unfortunately, however, it is exceedingly capricious extreme variations occurring with the result that even when the total amount reaches the normal, it may be so unfavourably distributed as to cause a failure on the crops. The most critical months of the year are June to October, and the rainfall in the *hathiya* asterism at the end of September is the most important in the year, for not only is it required to spring the winter rice to maturity but also to provide for the sowing of the *rabi* crops."

Mr. J. A. Sweeney, I.C.S., in his Final Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations in the District of Champaran during 1913—1919, published in 1922 without going into much detail about the vagaries of monsoon in the district, nevertheless mentions that " rainfall is still a factor of enormous importance in agricultural economy ".

Not only during the time of settlement operations of the district by Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore that the rainfall was capricious and varied widely from the normal, the same trend has been continued down to our times. In 1874 the normal rainfall was 56.80 inches which went down in 1896 as low as 49.55 inches. This was considered by Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore as very ominous as the rainfall for the vital months of September and October began to show lighter showers, which were 12.84 inches as against 20.09 inches in 1874. The situation now can be realised from the fact that in the months of September and October the rainfall inches were 4.74 and 0.07 in 1950-51, 3.74 and 0.36 in 1951-52, 11.40 and 0.52 in 1952-53, 9.57 and 0.63 in 1953-54, 4.31 and 0.97 in 1954-55 and 13.66 and 0.66 in 1955-56, respectively. Out of six years four years show abnormally low rainfall in the months of September and October when rainfall is absolutely essential to bring the *aghani* paddy to maturity and to supply moisture for the sowing of spring crops. Following is the chart showing average rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1936-37 to 1955-56 :—

TABLE I.

Statement showing the average rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1936-37 *to* 1955-56.*

Year.	Average Rainfall in inches.
1936-37	72.26
1937-38	56.57
1938-39	72.11
1939-40	47.27

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* *The Bihar Statistical Hand-Book*, 1953, pp. 14-15 and *Statistical Hand-Book*, 1955, pp. 16-17.

Year.	Average Rainfall in inches.
1940-41	50.34
1941-42	57.32
1942-43	44.25
1943-44	47.22
1944-45	49.28
1945-46	43.06
1946-47	59.62
1947-48	52.49
1948-49	55.38
1949-50	55.92
1950-51	48.35
1951-52	51.56
1952-53	60.78
1953-54	59.38
1954-55	51.41
1955-56	62.31

The average normal annual rainfall being 56.18 inches.

The total annual rainfall ranges between 72.26 inches in 1936-37 and 43.06 in 1945-46, the normal being 56.18 inches. 1936-37, 1937-38 and 1938-39 were years of abundant rainfall but were followed by the two years of 1939-40 and 1940-41 when the rainfall average were below the normal. In 1941-42 the rainfall reaches a slightly higher than the normal figure but was followed by four years of extremely deficient rainfall, always remaining far below the average normal figure, the figures being 44.25, 47.22, 49.28 and the lowest figure of 43.06, respectively. In 1946-47 the rainfall was somewhat satisfactory and again went down to 52.49 in 1947-48, 55.38 in 1948-49, 55.92 in 1949-50, 48.35 in 1950-51 and 51.56 in 1951-52. From 1952-53 the rainfall again reached a satisfactory incidence excepting for the year in 1954-55 when the total fall was 51.41 inches only.

The district, therefore, suffered alternately between floods in the years when there were excessive fall and draughts and as a result widespread scarcity in those years when the fall was absolutely inadequate.

The individual months too show great variations. Following is the statement showing rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1950-51 to 1955-56 :—

TABLE II.

Statement showing monthly rainfall in inches in Champaran from 1950-51 *to* 1955-56.

Year.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(A) 1950-51	1.24	0.11	3.52	14.55	8.53	14.68	4.74	0.07	Nil	0.15	0.64	0.12
(B) 1951-52	0.27	0.02	0.42	7.72	18.14	13.46	3.74	0.34	0.37	Nil	0.12	0.29
(C) 1952-53	1.91	1.94	3.23	11.73	11.67	16.10	11.40	0.52	0.10	Nil	2.05	0.13
(D) 1953-54	0.95	0.75	1.74	13.52	23.60	8.17	9.57	0·63	0.12	0.03	0.26	0.07
1954-55	0.02	Nil	2.65	7.08	20.27	15.60	4.31	0.97	Nil	0.04	0.28	0.19
1955-56	0.05	0.52	1.41	10.09	22.82	10.77	13.66	0.66	Nil	Nil	0.71	1.62

(A) *vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1951 pp. 8-9.

(B) *Vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1952 pp. 10-11.

(C) *Vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1953 p. 16.

(D) *Vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1955 pp. 18-19.

If the above table is scrutinised with the help of the table put in below showing normal rainfall for each month in Champaran (in inches) and also with the statement showing figures for the years 1874 and 1896 (given before) the vagaries of the monsoon and the dangerous trend for uneven distribution of rainfall will be apparent :—

TABLE III.*

Statement showing normal rainfall each month in Champaran (in inches).

March	0.49
April	0.68
May	2.47
June	9.17
July	15.66
August	13.30
September	10.41
October	2.37
November	0.28
December	0.18
January	0.47
February	0.70

For the month of June (when the rainfall is needed for autumn crop) the rainfall was 8.35 in 1874, 4.11 in 1886, 22.39 in 1889, 8.19 in 1896 and 9.17 in 1955. Similarly for July the rainfall was 11.75 in 1874, 31.92 in 1893, 6.30 in 1894, 11.57 in 1896 and 11.55 in 1955. These wide variations due to imbalanced distribution of rainfall cause acute distress.

LAND UTILISATION.

The district was full of forests before. According to the census of 1951, the present area of the district is 3,525 square miles or 20,56,000 acres. The area assessed by Todar Mal in 1582 was only 155 square miles. During the next two centuries there was a great progress in reclamation of lands and in 1790 we find that an area of 1,041 square miles had been assessed. From 1793, when the Permanent Settlement took place to 1845, when the revenue survey was done, the progress in cultivation was very rapid. In 1879 it was estimated that 67 per cent of the area of the district had come under cultivation. By 1907 about 70 per cent of the area had been brought under the plough.

In the Report of the Revisional Survey and Settlement (1913—1919), Mr. Sweeney, Settlement Officer, had observed that 69 per cent of area of the district excluding the hills and forests was under cultivaton. The total area of the district, as mentioned in this report, consisted of 2,77,735 acres, excluding about 290 square miles of hills and forests. There has been no further settlement after 1919 and a valuable source of information regarding land utilisation since 1919 has thus been denied.

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* *Vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1955, p. 20.

There have, however, been sample and other surveys from Agriculture Statistics Section of the State Government. The Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Bihar, has published *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book of* 1953, giving the results of such surveys. The following table of land utilisation is from that publication :—

TABLE IV.

During 1952-53 (*inthousand of acres*).

Forest	108
Not available for cultivation	288
Other uncultivated land excluding current fallow	148
Current fallow	221
Net area sown	1,499
Total area of the district	2,264
Bhadai crops	507
Aghani crops	826
Rabi crops	549
Fruits	40
Potatoes	3
Vegetables including root crops	19
Total area sown	1,944
Area sown more than once	445

According to this table the area of the district has increased by about 187 thousand acres over the acreage calculated by Mr. Sweeney. These figures appear to include the forest and hills. The net area under cultivation is over 80 per cent of the total area of the district, excluding forest and hills. This is a distinct advance since 1919 when Mr. Sweeney found that 69 per cent of the total area was under the plough.

The above table (Table IV) will show that the double cropped area forms nearly 30 per cent of the net cropped area. It may be mentioned, however, that any comparison of the areas under different crops in different years would be rather far-fetched as the growing of different crops from year to year depends on various factors, chiefly rainfall which is rather uncertain. There have also been cases where cultivation of particular crops has declined. Indigo, which used to be grown on a large scale in the district at the instance of the European planters, has completely died out. There was a time when it covered an area of 96,000 acres. This acreage declined to 47,800 acres in 1905 and to 38,600 acres in 1906. Partially because of the synthetic indigo at a cheaper price and the campaign against the oppressions of the indigo planters, indigo cultivation rapidly declined

In the early thirties it completely died out. Lalsariah was the last concern to grow and manufacture indigo. The consolidated blocks of land which grew indigo are now growing sugarcane and other crops. Another crop that used to be very extensively grown in the district was poppy. Letter no. 48, dated the 24th November 1854, from F. A. Glover, Joint Magistrate, Champaran, to the Commissioner of Revenue, Patna Division, mentions that opium was grown in a very large amount in the district, the average outturn being 14,000 to 16,000 maunds. It was a favourite crop with the ryots although zamindars bothered them very much by charging enhanced rents. However, the area under this crop at that time has not been mentioned. At the Survey and Settlement of 1892—1899 it was found to be grown on 54,000 acres. But the area gradually declined largely owing to the competition of more paying crop and the area under this crop had fallen to 47,000 acres in 1905-06. Poppy cultivation has practically died out from the district now. The latest figures for land utilisation are as follows :—

Statement showing the classification of areas (in thousand acres) during 1953-54, 1954-55 *and* 1955-56.*

Year.	Forest.	Not available for cultivation.	Other uncultivated land excluding current fallow.	Current fallow.	Net area sown.	Total area of the district.	*Bhadai* crops.	*Aghani* crops.	*Rabi* crops.	Fruits.	Potatoes.	Vegetables including root crops.	Total area sown.	Area sown more than once.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1953-54	1,03	3,01	1,11	2,05	15,43	22,64	4,44	7,94	6,90	42	5	24	19,99	4,56
1954-55	1,02	3,18	1,27	1,87	15,29	22,64	4,63	7,72	4,91	34	5	25	17,90	2,61
1955-56	1,69	3,91	1,49	2,74	12,13	22,64	5,59	6,96	6,15	41	8	11	19,30	7,69

A scrutiny of the statement will show that generally agricultural condition is still unsteady and as is dependant upon various factors, the figures of areas under respective crops show alternatively rise and fall. Forest area reaches the peak in 1955-56 though, in the previous years it is less by 67,000 of acres. This is really a queer figure because it is incredible that forest area can vary so widely from year to year. The area not available for cultivation also shows an upward trend and rises by another 1,03,000 acres from the 1952-53 figures to 1955-56 figures. The figure for other uncultivated land excluding current fallow falling in 1953-54 and 1954-55 again rises to the level of 1952-53 figure in the year 1955-56. Current fallow in 1955-56 also shows a distinct increase though it also reached a low figure in the preceding two years. Net area sown, however, records a steep drop in 1955-56 from the 1952-53 figure. From the figure for the area under *bhadai* crops in 1952-53, the two succeeding years fall perceptively but again leaps up in 1955-56 by more than 52,000 of acres. In 1952-53 the area under *aghani* crops was 8,26,000 acres but it shows a steady decline and reaches the figure of 6,96,000 acres in 1955-56. The area under *rabi* crops rises and falls alternately and reaches the figure of 6,15,000 acres in 1955-56 showing an increase of 1,24,000 acres more over the figure for preceding year though remaining much less than the figure for 1953-54 when it reached the figure of 6,90,000 acres. The area under fruits shows a decline in 1954-55 only but otherwise remains steady. The figure for the area under potatoes distinctly rises from 3,000 acres in 1952-53 to 8,000 acres in 1955-56. There is a marked fall in the figure for the area under vegetables including root crops, from 19,000 acres in 1952-53, 24,000 acres in 1953-54 and 25,000 acres in 1954-55, it falls to only 11,000 acres in 1955-56. The figure for the total sown area also fluctuates and after a marked fall of 2,09,000 acres in 1954-55 it again recoups and reaches the figure of 19,30,000 in 1955-56. The average, however, remains normal. The area sown more than once rises from 4,45,000 acres in 1952-53 to 7,69,000 in 1955-56 thus increasing in a very marked way. It, however, shows a decline only in 1954-55, i.e., 2,61,000 acres.

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* *Vide* Bihar Statistical Hand-Book, 1955, pp. 24—26.

AGRICULTURAL PATTERN.

A picture of agricultural pattern sixty years ago will be apparent from the following extract from the Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations in the Champaran District conducted by C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Esq., I.C.S., during 1892—1899 and published in 1900.

“The extent and percentage of net cropped area appropriated to each harvest, the area twice cropped, the total net cropped area, and the percentage of it that is irrigated are as follows :—

Bhadai.		*Aghani.*		*Rabi.*		Twice cropped.		Net cropped area.	Irrigated percentage.
Area.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area.	Percentage of net cropped area.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Acres.		Acres.		Acres.		Acres.		Acres.	
6,64,437	46	5,56,279	38	7,99,622	55	5,72,670	39	14,47,668	2

The most noticeable points with regard to these figures is the very large area under *bhadai* (46 per cent), the somewhat small area under *aghani* (38 per cent), the large area under *rabi,* and the large area twice cropped. These percentages, at first sight, might encourage the supposition that Champaran is a great *rabi* producing area like the south part of Tirhut bordering on the Ganges. But this is far from the truth. Much of the *rabi* area is covered with grass, *khesari* and other cheap crops, such as only the poorest will eat. It will, therefore, be necessary to examine the figures in further detail in order to arrive at a just idea of the district agricultural resources; but before doing so, a comparison of the figures already furnished with those returned by some neighbouring districts may not be without interest :—

Serial no.	Name of district.	Total area in acres for which statistics were prepared.	Net cropped area.		*Bhadai.*		*Aghani.*		*Rabi.*		Twice cropped.		*Irrigated.*	
			Area in acres.	Percentage of total area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Precentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Champaran ..	20,79,815	14,47,668	70	6,64,437	46	5,56,279	38	7,99,622	55	5,72,670	39	27,829	2
2	Muzaffarpur ..	19,41,254	15,55,291	80	5,94,668	38	7,47,606	48	9,36,039	60	7,23,022	46	29,828	2
3	Gaya ..	3,72,508	2,46,734	66	15,288	6	1,34,252	54	1,50,320	61	53,126	21	1,37,934	56
4	North Monghyr..	30,359	24,410	80	8,938	37	8,031	33	12,354	51	4,913	20	87	3

Gaya is largely a one cropped district, and for its one crop depends mainly on artificial irrigation. The conditions of North Monghyr and Muzaffarpur are probably more similar than these figures would show. The North Monghyr statistics are for the Narhan estate only. The *bhadai* area in Champaran is very much greater than in Muzaffarpur, while the *aghani* area is smaller. Yet a local observer would say, without hesitation, that Champaran is more distinctively a rice-growing district than Muzaffarpur. The explanation is that Champaran, being much exposed to inundation, grows much of its paddy as an autumn crop, and this accounts for the large area devoted to this harvest. The area under *rabi* and twice cropped is considerably less in Champaran than in Muzaffarpur, and at the same time it is less remunerative.

For the Champaran district taken alone the statistics of the relative importance of the different harvests and of irrigation are, thana by thana as follows :—

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Total area in acres.	Net cropped area.		*Bhadai.*		*Agahani.*		*Rabi.*		Twice cropped.		Irrigated area.	
			Acres.	Percentage to total area.	Area.	Percentage to net cropped.	Area.	Percentage to net cropped.	Area.	Percentage to net cropped.	Area.	Percentage to net cropped.	Area.	Percentage to net cropped.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Bagaha ..	3,96,272	1,98,823	50	86,010	43	76,192	38	1,06,529	54	69,908	35	7,002	4
2	Shikarpur ..	3,54,558	2,44,781	69	84,461	34	1,23,593	50	1,31,498	54	94,771	39	11,204	5
3	Bettiah ..	3,50,139	2,43,139	69	1,20,621	50	93,072	38	1,24,748	51	95,302	39	622	..
	Total Bettiah Subdivision..	11,00,969	6,86,743	62	2,91,092	42	2,92,857	43	3,62,775	53	2,59,981	38	18,828	3
4	Adapur ..	1,43,401	1,22,193	85	65,387	54	48,423	40	78,624	64	70,241	57	4,976	4
5	Dhaka ..	2,14,528	1,77,846	83	86,269	49	64,072	36	1,13,420	64	85,915	48	2,942	2
6	Motihari ..	1,85,180	1,31,337	71	62,716	48	33,317	25	82,966	63	47,662	36	1,044	1
7	Gobindganj ..	1,82,689	1,27,963	70	67,136	52	43.871	34	63,080	49	46,124	36	37	..
8	Kesaria ..	1,74,842	1,38,468	79	66,410	48	50,453	36	60,813	44	39,208	28	..	..
9	Madhubani ..	78,206	63,118	81	25,427	40	23,286	37	37,944	60	23,539	37	2	..
	Total Sadar Subdivision ..	9,78,846	7,60,925	78	3,73,345	49	2,63,422	35	4,36,847	57	3,12,689	41	9,001	1
	GRAND TOTAL ..	20,79,815	14,47,668	70	6,64,437	46	5,56,279	38	7,99,622	55	5,72,670	40	27,829	2

The differences in the percentages of the two subdivisions are noticeable. Bettiah has 42 per cent under *bhadai,* the Sadar 49 per cent under winter crops, Bettiah has 43 per cent, while the Sadar has only 35 per cent but under *rabi,* on the other hand, the Sadar has 57 per cent, against Bettiah's 53 per cent, and the twice-cropped area in the Sadar is consequently greater than in Bettiah. The irrigated area in Bettiah subdivision is nearly 3 per cent as against only 1 per cent in the Sadar. The *aghani* harvest consists mainly, of course, of winter rice. It follows, then, that winter rice is a more predominating crop in the Bettiah than in the Sadr subdivision. A similar distinction has been noticed between the northern half and the southern half of Muzaffarpur; but there is this difference, that while in South Muzaffarpur, the large *bhadai* area is occupied largely by maize, etc., valuable crops themselves, which form the first crops to the better class of *rabi* crops, in South Champaran, the predominating *bhadai* area is largely covered with autumn rice, the second crop to which is often of an inferior class. Thus, to gain a clear idea of their respective resourcefulness in the face of adverse seasons, it will be necessary to compare the relative rice areas of the two districts irrespective of harvests.

A glance at the detailed thana statement will show that Adapur, with 54 per cent, and Govindganj, with 52 per cent of net cropped area under *bhadai,* show a very marked predominance of autumn crops. Adapur's chief autumn crop is early rice. Gobindganj has considerable upland, and at the same time subject to inundation early in the season. Bettiah, which also contains considerable upland comes next, then Dhaka, with 49 per cent, under *bhadai,* consisting mainly of early rice on the portion of it bordering on Adapur. It is noticeable that the *bhadai* area is only 40 per cent of the net cropped area in Madhuban, whereas it is 43 per cent in Bagaha. Madhuban, bordering on Tirhut, has little land exposed to early inundation, while the southern portion of Bagaha contains much *diara* where *bhadai* crops are grown. In the northern half of Bagaha, there are practically no autumn crops, and its condition approximate to those of Shikarpur, which returns only 35 per cent under this head.

Turning to the proportion of net cropped area under *aghani,* we find the above position largely reversed. Shikarpur heads the list with 50 per cent, and that Adapur does not end it, shows how remarkably fertile that thana is. On the contrary, we find Adapur in spite of its large *bhadai* area follows Shikarpur with 40 per cent or 2 per cent above the district average, under *aghani.* With reference to the contrast between the agricultural conditions in Shikarpur and Adapur, Mr. Kerr writes : "The importance of this contrast lies in the fact that it is well known that Shikarpur is the area in the district most liable to famine, while Adapur is always the least affected. Shikarpur, with its dependence on the *aghani* harvest, feels at once the least failure of rainfall, and has no *rabi* crops of any value to look forward to help it to tide through the year following a short *aghani* harvest; whereas, in Adapur, the rich *bhadai* crop is reaped at the beginning of September, so that, even if the *hathiya* rains fail, it is no great matter while there is always the prospect of a good *rabi* crop on the high *bhadai* land later on. In the recent famine, Shikarpur was the thana first and most severely affected, and relief had to be continued there long after it had been closed in other parts. Adapur, on the other hand, was only comparatively slightly affected, so far as the cultivators were concerned, and in many parts of it very little relief had to be given. After Adapur, Bettiah and Bagaha return the largest percentage. The Bettiah subdivision is considerably larger than the Sadar subdivision, and its three thanas, if we ignore Adapur, contain the highest percentage under *aghani*, indicating the extent to which the northern half of this district is dependent on its rice crop. Adapur, too, belongs to the same physical division. In Dhaka, Kesaria and Madhuban the proportion of area under *aghani* is much the same, viz., about 36 per cent, and Gobindganj, with 2 per cent less, has the smallest area but one under *aghani*, having been shown to have the largest area but one under *bhadai*. Motihari thana with only 25 per cent of its net cropped area covered by *aghani* crops, closes the list. Gobindganj has a large area under winter rice in the *chaurs* near Areraj. Motihari is almost entirely upland.

Conclusions deducible from the relative proportion of area under *rabi*, are largely discounted by the fact that *rabi* of a kind is usually grown on winter rice land, but it is of a very poor kind. No man in his senses would grow wheat in a field from which he has cropped paddy. In short, it is the quality of the *rabi* grown, not its quantity, that has to be considered. Nevertheless the Sadar subdivision, in which alone are valuable *rabi* crops cultivated to any extent, returns a large percentage of area under them than the Bettiah subdivision. Needless to say, Adapur with so large a percentage of area under *bhadai* and *aghani*, heads the list which 64 per cent of its area under *rabi*, and so much as 57 per cent of its area twice cropped. This extraordinarily fertile tract has been reclaimed quite within modern times. Dhaka and Motihari come next with 1 per cent less under *rabi* and Madhuban fourth, with 60 per cent of its net cropped area so occupied that the three thanas of the Bettiah subdivision should return a larger area under *rabi* than Gobindganj and Kesaria, confirms what I have said that mere quantity is little index of the wealth derivable from this harvest, and the same remark necessarily applies to the proportion of net cropped area which is returned as twice cropped."

Mr. J. A. Sweeney, I.C.S., in his Final Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations during 1913—1919, published in

1922, has dealt with the agricultural pattern in the following paragraphs :—

"*District area.*—It is unnecessary to enter again into the question of the district area which was dealt with at length in Mr. Stevenson-Moore's report. The area for which the statistics have been compiled in the present operations is precisely the same, though the figures obtained by summation of fields are, as might be expected, somewhat different from the figures of 1898.

The statement below compares the figures in acres for the two settlements :—

Thana.	Area, last settlement.	Area, present settlement.
Shikarpur	3,54,558	3,58,492
Bagaha	3,96,272	3,83,151
Bettiah	3,50,139	3,57,556
Bettiah Subdivision Total ..	11,00,969	10,99,199
Madhuban	78,206	79,931
Adapur	1,43,401	1,45,085
Dhaka	2,14,528	2,15,351
Kesaria	1,74,842	1,71,899
Gobindganj	1,82,689	1,82,628
Motihari	1,85,180	1,83,662
Sadr Subdivision Total ..	9,78,846	9,78,536
District Total ..	20,79,815	20,77,735

The considerable differences in the two sets of areas for Bettiah subdivision are mainly due to the transfer, since 1898, of 38 villages from Bagaha to Bettiah, and 10 villages from Bagaha to Shikarpur. The other differences are due to inevitable variation in the two series of area extraction, each of which, however, had to agree, within 2 per cent, with the unvarying U. T. areas (with off sets) of the individual village units.

Fields and holdings—Defect in statistical system.—The new record-of-rights comprises 34,37,531 plots as against 28,07,976 in the old record, an increase of 22 per cent. The average size of the plot has decreased from .74 acre to .60 acre. These results follow inevitably from transfers and from the pressure of increased population. There is, as we found later in Saran, a limit beyond which the subdivision of fields is uneconomical, and does not proceed, but Champaran district is still far from this stage of development, and the officers of the next revision may expect again an increase of 20 per cent in the fields, and a corresponding fall in their average size. The areas of holdings are much more important, but unfortunately the present system of statistics does not give an accurate account of the facts. What we really require to know is the average size of a raiyat's holding. Under the present system figures are compiled for *khatians*, which do not necessarily, or in fact, represent complete holdings. In the first place a raiyat may have produce-rented land in addition to his cash-rented holding. He will therefore get two *khatians*. Again he may hold land in two villages and for each village he will get a separate *khatian*, or set of *khatians*. Finally the raiyat may have several "*jamabandis*" or the same joint family may have several *jamabandis* in different names, for all of which separate *khatians* are prepared. The statements based on *khatians*, therefore, do not enable us to measure the property of the raiyat, and I think it would be well in future operations, especially in view of the need for a reliable franchise roll, to prepare in addition to the *khatian terij*, a *raiyatwar terij* bringing together for each raiyat, or joint family, the whole of the land held by him or it. It may be urged, and it is conceded, that there are serious difficulties in the carrying out of this project. The facts remain, however, that our present statistics are defective in a most important particular, and that the compilation of such a *terij*, if difficult, is possible.

The cultivated area—Out of the total area, 20,77,735 acres of the district, 14,29,859 acres or 69 per cent are cultivated, while 6,47,875 acres or 31 per cent are uncultivated. These figures, of course, exclude the 290 square miles of hill and jungle in the north of the district that have not been cadastrally surveyed.

The following statement compares the results of the last and the present settlements :—

	Last. settlement.	Present settlement.
	Acres.	Acres.
Cultivated area	14,47,668	14,29,859
Percentage	70	69
Uncultivated area ..	6,32,147	6,47,875
Percentage	30	31
Total	20,79,815	20,77,735

While, for reasons already described, it is not practicable to adopt the nominal difference in cultivated area, i.e., 17,809 acres, as the real decrease in cultivation, the comparison of percentages shows beyond doubt that there has been a real decrease, though it is not considerable. The explanation is simple enough. On the one hand, something over 8,000 acres of cultivated land has been acquired since the last settlement for railways and canals, and has thus become waste, and on the other hand, natural development has been arrested at first by the depression following the famine of 1897 and the set-back in population that it caused, and later by a long period of agrarian trouble which, it is hoped, has now ended. There have been additional causes in the disappointing immigration due to the threatening agrarian outlook, the evil repute of the climate in the thanas where there is most room for expansion, and the lightness of the soil in some of the central thanas.

The figures below compare the percentage of cultivated and uncultivated land in the several thanas in the two settlements :—

Thana.	Cultivated.		Uncultivated.	
	Last settlement.	Present settlement.	Last settlement.	Present settlement.
Shikarpur	69.04	67	30.96	33
Bagaha	50.17	49.50	49.83	50.50
Bettiah	69.44	71	30.56	29
Bettiah subdivision ..	62.38	62.33	37.62	37.67
Madhuban	80.70	77.50	19.30	22.50
Adapur	85.21	85.14	14.79	14.86
Dhaka	82.90	83.90	17.10	16.10
Kesaria	79.20	76.30	20.30	23.70
Gobindganj	70.04	65	29.96	35
Motihari	70.92	69.50	29.08	30.50
Sadar subdivision	77.74	76	22.26	24

The Bettiah subdivision, which furnished nearly all the land acquired for railways and canals, has maintained its percentage of cultivation, and in fact, there has been a decided advance in Bettiah thana. The Sadar subdivision, with the exception of the Adapur and Dhaka thanas, shows a decided decline.

The uncultivated area.—It has been seen already that 6,47,875 acres or 31 per cent of the district area is uncultivated.

Out of this 43,685 acres are current fallow, while 3,84,753 acres or 18 per cent, are cultivable. The area of current fallow has declined since the last settlement, while the area available for the expansion of cultivation remains practically the same. Turning to the thanas we find that Bagaha has the enormous proportion of 34 per cent of its total area available for cultivation. There is similarly room for great expansion in Shikarpur and Bettiah, the available land being mainly either old fallow or cultivable jungle.

The question of grazing grounds.—There is one important consideration, however, that affects the expansion of cultivation. In parts of the district there is too little waste land left to furnish grazing grounds for village cattle, and the want is now evidenced by disputes between landlord and tenant on this subject. The Champaran Agrarian Committee noticed the want and recommended that reasonable areas of waste land should be set aside for cattle. The Bettiah estate has already taken steps on this recommendation, but it is practically certain that other landlords will not see their way to take similar action. In a well regulated agricultural community, it is reasonable to suppose that 10 per cent of the land would be set aside a grazing ground for cattle. Land suitable for grazing is ordinarily culturable, and the cultivable area is as we have seen 18 per cent. On this reasoning, it would appear that the area available for agricultural expansion, assuming that proper regard is paid to grazing facilities, is not considerable. The facts are however that, except in the Bettiah Estate *kham* and *thikadari* villages, the district will tend towards the system prevailing in most parts of North Bihar, by which all cultivable lands are gradually taken up, and cattle are mainly trough-fed. In any case the areas available for cultivation in the northern thanas are still very considerable, and it is to be hoped that the climate will improve with the advance of the plough.

Harvests and irrigation.—The following statement shows the distribution of area under the three harvests and the proportion irrigated according to the present and last settlements :—

Bhadai.		*Aghani.*		*Rabi.*		Twice cropped.				
Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Area in acres.	Percentage of net cropped area.	Net cropped area.	Irrigated percentage.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
6,62,727	46	5,89,088	41	7,96,922	55	6,61,337	47	14,29,859	8	Present settlement.
664,437	46	5,56,279	38	7,99,622	55	5,72,670	39	14,47,668	2	Last settlement

The increased area under *aghani* crops and twice cropped is due to a large extent to the increased facilities for irrigation. The large figure for *rabi* requires a word of explanation, as it is deceptive. The *rabi* cultivation in Shikarpur and Bagaha, and to a less extent in Bettiah, is very careless and unproductive, as seeds are cast in the growing *dhan* and left without any further care to grow up a sparse crop when the *dhan* is removed. The crop experiments may illustrate this, as the *rabi* results in those thanas were almost negligible. The irrigated area has increased by about 300 per cent since the last settlement, the present area being 1,16,117 acres as against 27,829 acres. The figure 1,16,117 acres, however, does not give a complete idea of the irrigation system, as it covers only the area found irrigated by artificial means during the survey, which took place in a year of exceptionally favourable rainfall. I have already shown in paragraph 9 that the canal system now commands, and can irrigate, 3,06,800 acres, so that in reality 21 per cent of the net cropped area is entirely protected, or 52 per cent of the area under *aghani,* which is the main crop to be protected.

Wells—The fewness of wells in Champaran is striking. There are only 16,426 in the district, the Bettiah subdivision having only 5,537. The reason, of course, is the abundance of water available from other sources, lakes, rivers and *jhils.*

THE CROPS.

Rice—The officially recognized staple food crops of the district are rice and maize, the fluctuating values of which have been considered in a previous chapter. The area under rice has increased since 1898, the figures being last settlement 7,82,661 acres or 54 per cent of net cropped area, and present settlement 8,58,631 acres or 60 per cent.

The increase is due to the extension of irrigation. Rice is the chief crop of the district, and it is now so protected that a serious famine is impossible.

Bhadai crops.—After rice the chief crops of the autumn harvest are maize, which covers 1,59,984 acres or 11 per cent of the net cropped area, and *kodo,* which accounts for 1,19,681 acres or 8 per cent. The corresponding percentages at the last settlement were 8.28 and 7.75, so that there has been an increase here also. Indigo has practically disappeared, for causes that have been described already.

Aghani crops.—In the winter harvest again rice is the chief crop, accounting for 5,14,995 out of 5,89,088 acres. The only others that need mention are miscellaneous food crops (mainly *alua* and *suthni*) 23,638 acres, oil-seeds 17,103 acres, and sugarcane 19,688 acres of which the growing importance has been noticed in the first part of this report.

Rabi crops—The total area under the spring harvest is 7,96,922 acres, a figure which, for reasons already stated, is somewhat misleading. In this harvest there is much more even distribution among the crops. The most important figures are :—

	Acres.
Barley	1,67,335
Haldi	1,13,780
Wheat	1,07,182
Linseed	95,576
Arhar	66,457
Gram	61,934

The chief food crops of this harvest are barley and wheat. The percentages of the net cropped area under those in the two settlements are compared below :—

	Last settlement.	Present settlement.
Barley	14.79	11.70
Wheat	7.27	7.40

The differences do not call for any detailed investigation. Both crops are grown under precisely the same conditions, and are often mixed in the same field. The importance of the *arhar* crop is that it grows and thrives on very little cultivation, and under adverse conditions. It must be said, however, that in general the Champaran cultivator puts very little effort into his *rabi* cultivation, and gets a correspondingly small outturn, except in the manured *goenra* lands surrounding the homestead. This inferior cultivation was especially marked in comparison with the very careful and productive tillage of the Saran District. Excluding the cultivation of the Factories, the rabi outturn of the former district does not average much more than half the yield of the latter.

Production and export—The railway system has opened out the export trade of the district, and as might be expected, the chief articles of export correspond to the crops under expanding cultivation. At the last settlement rice occupied 54 per cent of the net cropped area. It now occupies 60 per cent and constitutes 37 per cent of the exports from the district according to the figures for 1900 to 1910. Oil-seeds in 1898 occupied 6.50 per cent of the net cropped area. They now occupy 14 per cent and account for 34 per cent of exports.

Regarding irrigation in his time Mr. Sweeney had come to certain definite conclusions as will be seen in the following paragraph :—

Protection of cultivation.—Although it cannàt be said that Champaran is immune from damage by floods, a successful attempt has been made to confine the Gandak by an embankment some 62 miles long extending down the western border of the district. This work is maintained on the contract system at an expenditure of approximately Rs. 20,000 per annum, and protects an area of 267 square miles. On the other hand, strides have been made in the extension of irrigation facilities. The north and east of the district contain a large proportion of *bangar* soil, which grows winter rice, and is peculiarly suited to irrigation. It is in this area that the canals operate, the south and west of the district, on the other hand, having a preponderance of upland with a light soil, which the people consider unsuited to artificial irrigation. The district is ordinarily blessed with abundant rainfall, but when it is either below the requisite quantity, or badly distributed, the winter rice crop is endangered. It may be said that with the irrigation facilities now existing the district is practically immune from famine on an extensive scale. There are now three main canals :—

(1) The Tribeni Canal, which traverses in the whole north of the district from Tribeni Ghat to Mainatand.

(2) The Tiur Canal, which runs almost due south towards Lakhaura from Chauradano.

(3) The Dhaka Canal, which runs south and west from the vicinity of Bairagnia Station.

The Tribeni Canal was designed to irrigate that portion of the district to the west of Motihari which is bounded by the Nepal frontier and the Sikrahana river as far east as the boundary between Bihar and Nepal runs north and south. It was partly constructed in the year 1897 as a famine relief work, and was again taken up in 1901. The first portion was opened on the 7th June 1909, and the extension of the irrigation has gone on continuously since in a series of lengthy distributaries running south. Nearly 62 miles of the main canal have now been constructed, and there is a suggestion of a further extension from Mainatand south towards Sathi in order to cover the area previously served by the Sathi *pains*, the history of which will be found in the chapter on Attestation.

The Tiur Canal, which takes off from the river of the same name was originally made mainly at the expense of the Madhuban Babu and other zamindars. It was completed in 1879 at a cost of Rs. 72,926 of which Government paid Rs. 6,881. It was taken over by Government in 1886, and has been maintained since that time from provincial revenues. The construction of distributaries was taken up after the famine of 1897, and completed in 1905-06. There is now a project for the construction of an extra distributary towards Lakhaura, for which 49 acres of land have been acquired. This canal traverses what is perhaps the most fertile tract in the District.

The construction of the Dhaka Canal was commenced in 1896-97 as a famine relief work, because the rice crop had failed almost entirely in thana Dhaka in the famines of 1873 and 1896, and much expenditure had been incurred on relief. The canal and its distributaries were completed in March 1908.

One further irrigation work, which has a chequered history and is longer in operation, remains to be described. The Masan *pain* in the Ramnagar Raj was constructed at the expense of Government as a famine relief work in 1897-98. The Collector found that the demand was greater than the supply of water, and that there was consequently much jealousy and bickering about it, and that the interests of the Ramnagar raiyats were being neglected. A meeting was held in the Collector's house in June 1899 which was attended by the Collector, the Inspector of Works, and some European zamindars whose interests were concerned. It was agreed that the management of the work should be vested in the District Engineer, and that the sum of Rs. 800 annually required for the maintenance of the *pain* should be paid by the Raja Ramnagar and Messrs. Bion, Marsham and Coffin in proportion to the benefit derived from irrigation by their respective villages. Again in May, 1900, the Collector and the District Engineer met the parties requiring water for irrigation at Bettiah, and an arrangement was made whereby the *pain* was divided into five sections, and the parties agreed to contribute the costs according to the area irrigated. The subscriptions for maintenance amounted in 1901-02 to Rs. 1,786, in 1902-03 to Rs. 1,409, in 1903-04 to Rs. 1,886, in 1904-05 to Rs. 803. In this year the dissolution of the arrangement began. The decrease of income was due to conflicting claims for water, which the Collector fruitlessly endeavoured to settle by compromise. In 1905-06 only Rs. 228 was contributed out of a total assessment of Rs. 2,853, and the Collector proposed to give up the management. From this year the *pain* was practically closed. As no subscriptions were paid the Collector gave up the management, and the head villages seized all the water. This work was extremely useful during the short period when it was in operation, and it is to be regretted that the suggestion that it should be taken over by the Public Works Department has not materialized.

The areas commanded by the the three working canals are as follows :—

	Acres.
Tribeni Canal	2,84,800
Tiur Canal	6,000
Dhaka Canal	16,000
Total	3,06,800

The great importance of this protection will be realized from the fact that, assuming an average outturn of 15 standard maunds per acre, it ensures an annual yield of 46,02,000 maunds of paddy, or roughly two maunds per head of the total population of the district.

Besides irrigation from canals mentioned, there were also irrigation from private canals, tanks and *ahars* and other sources. The following statement of the irrigated area and how irrigated appears in Appendix I of Mr. Sweeney's Settlement Report :—

Name of thana.	Irrigated area.	IRRIGATED AREA AND HOW IRRIGATED.				
		Irrigated from wells.	Irrigated from Government canals.	Irrigated from private canals.	Irrigated from tanks and *ahars*.	Irrigated from other sources.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.	A. D.
Shikarpur ..	43,481 41	313 30	5,561 08	33,643 54	441 48	3,522 01
Bagaha ..	49,936 33	9 10	29,035 42	15,368 44	303 61	5,219 76
Bettiah ..	600 56	14 96	..	258 16	65 00	262 44
Total ..	94,018 30	337 36	34,596 50	49,270 14	810 09	9,004 21
Madhuban ..	53 60	9 34	..	..	31 26	13 00
Adapur ..	8,976 01	175 54	1,209 37	1,330 72	1,160 70	5,039 68
Dhaka ..	10,298 96	67 32	6,507 99	1,280 81	1,629 43	813 41
Kesaria ..	12 89	12 89	..	..	..	..
Gobindganj ..	811 71	720 20	..	2 48	88 55	0 48
Motihari ..	1,945 78	291 09	..	826 78	571 64	256 27
Total ..	22,098 95	1,276 38	7,777 36	3,440 79	3,481 58	6,122 84
GRAND TOTAL	1,16,117 25	1,613 74	42,373 86	52,710 93	4,291 67	15,127 05

After Mr. Sweeney's Report in 1922, there had not been any other similar intensive survey of agricultural condition in the district. Yet, gleaning stray figures from here and there one can easily visualise that there has not been any fundamental changes in agricultural pattern. The district as in the past continues to remain primarily agricultural with its age old pattern, of course, with a few modifications at places. If the present figures of cultivation are examined, it will be found that the average net area sown in 1951, viz., 14,77,094 acres is slightly higher than in 1921 when the average net area sown was 14,29,360 acres. The intervening two decades suffered on eclipse and the figures for 1931 and 1941 show marked fall than in 1951 and 1921. In 1931, the average net area sown was 13,63,220 acres and in 1941 was 13,97,660 acres. It shows that cultivation in the district has recouped its position somewhat, which it suffered during the post-depression and World War period.

The case with the average area sown more than once during the same period is just the opposite. In 1921, 5,23,140 acres were the area sown more than once, as against 6,00,940 acres in 1931, 6,01,720 in 1941 and 4,21,009 acres in 1951. This is a disturbing trend because the fall in figure is markedly lower than not only 1941 and 1931 figures but also from that of 1921. Excepting in 1931 when the average net area irrigated was 1,25,496 acres the irrigated acreage showed a regular increase from 1921 onwards where only 95,758 acres were under irrigation, as against 1,31,553 acres in 1931 and 1,67,781 acres in 1951. It is apparent from this that the cultivator is more and more becoming irrigation-minded. But the most disturbing feature is the rapid and steady fall in the area of cultivation per capita since 1921. In 1921 the area of cultivation per capita was 74 per cent whereas in 1931, it was 64 per cent, in 1941, 58 per cent and in 1951, 59 per cent. The growth of human population has been the main factor responsible for this trend. And it is bound to be lesser and lesser in the near future if the growth of population remains unchecked.

In 1951 there were 22,74,112 (including unsurveyed areas) acres, the total geographical area of the district, out of which net area sown comes to 14,77,094 acres, area sown more than once to 4,21,009 acres, current fallows 1,81,923 acres, area under orchard 39,972 acres, culturable waste 1,12,811 acres and area not available for cultivation 4,62,312 acres, respectively. In 1956-57 the figures returned 14,42,000 acres as net area sown, for area sown more than once 4,27,000 acres, current fallows 1,60,000 acres, culturable waste 1,04,000 acres and area not available for cultivation 2,96,000 acres, respectively. The changes are, therefore, very nominal, fluctuating only to the extent of a few thousands either way. More area was brought under cultivation in 1956-57 than in 1951. But the net area sown in 1956-57 is lesser than in 1951 by more than 30,000 acres. This is certainly disturbing but it is not a regularly downgrading trend, since in 1953-54 more area was sown, i.e., 15,43,000 acres, 1954-55 15,29,000 acres and in 1955-56 only 12,13,000 acres, respectively. The low figure sown in 1955-56 has been recouped as is evident from the figure quoted for the year 1956-57 shows an upward trend. It is a fact that in spite of increased irrigational facilities that were available 30 or 40 years back, agriculture in Champaran alike rest of Bihar is subject to the vagaries of monsoon.

Among the different crop seasons, *aghani* generally occupies greater acreage than *bhadai* or *rabi.* But there are years when *aghani* is closely followed by *rabi* and *bhadai.* In 1953-54 *aghani* occupied as much as 7,94,000 acres as against 4,44,000 acres by *bhadai* and 6,90,000 acres by *rabi,* respectively. This is the general trend of the different crop seasons now. In 1954-55, *bhadai* covered 4,63,000 acres and *aghani* and *rabi,* 7,72,000 acres and 4,91,000 acres, respectively. It will be marked here that the drop in *rabi* acreage is very great, in *aghani* it is little, whereas *bhadai* shows an increase over the previous year. In 1955-56, *bhadai* covered 5,59,000 acres as against 6,96,000 acres covered by *aghani* and 6,15,000 covered by *rabi,* respectively. Though there is an up and down process in the respective acreage, the fact is that *aghani* generally occupies the longer acreage.

The break up figure cropwise of 1951 when compared to the acreage under different crops it will be found that in 1956-57 rice, wheat, *khesari,* tobacco, potatoes and *marua,* though show a variation but that is not so marked as those in gram, barley, maize, *masoor,* peas, sugarcane and jute. The cash crops are being cultivated more widely in recent years than in the past. Indigo and opium are, of course, completely out of the picture now. But the cultivation of sugarcane and jute especially the former has increased enormously and bringing hard cash to the reach of the cane-growers. Jute cultivation is rather a late introduction but now sufficient attention is being paid to widen the scope of further cultivation of this crop, especially since India lost the jute growing areas of East Bengal to Pakistan.

The discussion of these figures in such detail is necessary to indicate the relative importance of different crops. It has also to be noted that the cultivators nowadays enjoy better and more improved facilities of irrigation than their predecessors. The canals, both Government and private, are still the main sources of irrigation, other sources which include modern improvements like tube-wells come next in importance, tanks and wells come third, far behind them. On an average 2,00,000 acres are annually irrigated. The yearly acreage under irrigation differs on the success or failure of monsoon, as in the past.

The regions which used to grow different crops in different seasons during the two settlement operations are still cultivating in the same manner. Only, as a change there are now more pockets of intensive cultivation of sugarcane nearabout the nine sugar factories in the district. Wherever there is a sugar factory, the immediate neighbourhood is found cultivating more sugarcane than anything else. But other crops like rice, wheat, barley, etc., are still the main items of cultivation where they used to be cultivated in the past.

LAND RECLAMATION.

Earlier Champaran was very sparsely populated and it had vast stretches of uninhabited waste land. We find description of such uninhabited strips of land in the old English Correspondence Volumes preserved in the Record Room of Motihari till as late as sixties of the last century. Letter no. 97, dated the 21st May 1860, from the officiating Joint Magistrate, Champaran, to the Commissioner of Circuit, Patna, mentions: "........ between the forests and sugar-cane of Lawrea and Rutwal and Bagaha is a space of country, some 40 to 50 miles long by 10 to 15 miles broad, comparatively speaking, waste and uninhabited.........." But since then the district has had a very heavy influx of immigrants, specially in the late seventies and eighties of the last century. Most of the immigrants came to have their permanent abode in the district. Now there is no such vast strip of land lying waste and uninhabited in the district and whatever waste lands there are, they are gradually being brought under the plough under the pressure of food deficit in the country. The figures quoted previously from the Statistical Hand Book of Bihar, 1953, indicate that there were only 148 thousand acres of land under the head "Other uncultivated land excluding current fallow".

A separate section, known as Waste Land Reclamation under an officer is functioning in the district since 1951. In order to facilitate reclamation of land the Government has made a provision to advance Land Improvement Loan to the cultivators at the rate of Rs. 50 per acre of the land proposed to be reclaimed. Whatever lands have been reclaimed in the district, have been reclaimed by manual labour.

Statement showing the amount of Land Improvement Loans and Agriculturists' Loans distributed on reclamation of waste land and area of waste land reclaimed in Champaran during

1951—1956.

Year.	Amount of land improvement loans distributed.	Amount of agriculture loans distributed for purchase of tractors and other implements.	Area of waste land reclaimed (by manual labour in acres).			Total.	By State tractors with assistance of land improvement loans (in acres).	GRAND TOTAL.
			With assistance of land improvement loans.	With assistance of agriculture loans and official initiative.	By application of Bihar Waste Land (Reclamation, Cultivation and Improvement) Act, 1946.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Rs.	Rs.						
1951-52	1,08,159	Nil	4,179	Nil	Nil	4,179	Nil	4,179
1952-53	17,270	Nil	862.00	Nil	Nil	862.00	Nil	862.00
1953-54	90,000	62,166	32,06.48	Nil	Nil	32,06.48	Nil	32,06.48
1954-55	1,00,582	17,000	11.00	Nil	Nil	11.00	Nil	11.00
1955-56	1,05,675	1,49,000	31,93.12	Nil	Nil	31,93.12	Nil	31,93.12

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

The main agricultural seasons are three, *aghani, bhadai* and *rabi*. *Aghani* season starts by the end of June or in the beginning of July when *aghani* rice is sown broadcast on the selected piece of land meant for seed nurseries. Seed sowing is followed by transplantation. Then the plant is left to mature with the help of water till the end of September when the water is drained off and the field is allowed to dry for about 15 days. The late rains of *hathiya* again fill the paddy fields which help the paddy attain maturity. The paddy is the main crop grown in this season. The paddy comes to maturity in November or December when the harvesting begins. Other crops grown during *aghani* season are *alua, janera* (*aghauwa*) and sugarcane. *Bhadai* season starts from the beginning of June and lasts till the 15th of October. The main crop grown during this season is *bhadai* paddy.

OTHER CROPS.

Other crops grown during this season are *makai, marua, sama, kodo, janera* (*masuria*), *urid, china,* hemp flax, etc. The *rabi* season starts just after the *hathiya* rains and lasts till the middle of April. As a matter of fact preparation of land for *rabi* begins from the time of early rains and sowing starts just after the rainy season. Generally *rabi* crops are sown from the beginning of *Chitra nakshtra* (8th to 20th October) to the end of *Siwati nakshatra* (21st October to 3rd November). Harvesting season begins by the last week of February and lasts till the middle of April. Crops grown during this season are wheat, barley, oats, *arhar, khesari,* gram, peas, potatoes, *masuri, kerao,* linseed, cotton, mustard, tobacco, etc.

SOILS.

For the purpose of soil study the district can be divided into two parts, i.e., the area falling to the north of river Sikrana and the area falling to the south of it. The Sikrana is an important river in the district flowing to the south-easterly direction. This river passes through the centre of the district. Gandak is another important river which forms the western border of the district and the soil of great natural fertility in the vicinity of its course is alluvial and very fertile.

North of Sikrana three types of soils are found, namely, *bangar, babhani* and *baldhus*. *Bangar* is a hard clay soil which predominates this area. This is particularly good for winter paddy and is suited to irrigation. *Babhani* is a thin reddish loam which bears crops of maize, barley, gram, other pulses and oil seeds. Paddy does not grow on this soil. *Baldhus* is a light loose sandy soil, fit for only maize and inferior millets. This is the least fertile soil.

South of Sikrana, broadly speaking two types of soils are found, that is *bhith* and *dhanhar*. *Bhith* is the upland soils and predominates the locality. *Dhanhar* is the large marshes (chaurs) where paddy is gown. This is confined to a comparatively small area. The upland or *uparwar* as it is also called by the inhabitants, is further divided into the following classes :—

(*a*) *Dhobini,* (*b*) *Goenra,* (*c*) *Bhath,* (*d*) *Baldhus,* (*e*) *Dub.*

Dhobini, meaning bleached, corresponds to *babhani* in the northern tract. *Goenra* is the upland soil close to village and is specially manured by cow-dung and is consequently very fertile. This is also known by the name *chaumas.* This is usually parcelled out into small plots, and almost every holding will be found to contain a portion of it. *Bhath* is a land periodically visited by flood and enriched by silt deposits. *Baldhus* is a light loose soil, in which sand predominates as its name denotes. *Dub* is low sandy lands on the riverside, which stagnant flood-water converts into marsh and on which a coarse paddy called *boro dhan* is grown.

PRINCIPAL CROPS.

As stated earlier the total cropped area of the district in the year 1952-53 was 1,944 thousand acres as against 19,30,000 acres in 1955-56 out of which 445 thousand acres were cultivated more than once as against 7,69,000 acres in 1955-56 and hence the net cropped area of the district was 1,499 thousand acres or 80 per cent of the total area of the district in 1952-53 as against 12,13,000 acres or 62.9 per cent in 1955-56 excluding the hills and forest areas. The following table mentions the acreage under principal crops in the district from the years 1952-53 to 1955-56 :—

TABLE V.

(*In thousands of tons.*)

	Paddy—autumn and winter. 1	Wheat. 2	Gram. 3	Barley. 4	Maize. 5	Masoor. 6	Arhar. 7	Khesari. 8	Peas. 9	Sugarcane. 10	Tobacco. 11	Potatoes. 12	Jute. 13	Chillies. 14	Marua. 15	Year. 16
1	1,026	85	36	144	118	77	46	58	13	92	1	3	21	*	20	1952-53
2	966	102	35	264	105	78	45	57	14	84	1	5	10	*	6	1953-54
	960	84	32	143	107	56	35	44	12	94	1	5	11	*	6	1954-55
	905	122	39	202	117	64	35	69	16	143	1	8	20	Nil	Not given.	1955-56

*Negligible.

1. *Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1953.

2. *Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1955, pp. 34—36.

Among food-crops paddy occupies the most important place. Next comes barley and then maize. Among the non-food-crops sugarcane occupies the first place and then jute.

A table is given below which shows the output of principal crops in the district from 1952-53 to 1955-56 :—

TABLE VI.

(In thousands of tons.)

Rice autumn and winter. 1	Wheat. 2	Gram. 3	Barley. 4	Maize. 5	Masoor. 6	Arhar. 7	Khesari. 8	Peas. 9	Sugarcane. 10	Potato. 11	Tobacco. 12	Jute. 13	Chillies. 14	Year. 15	
2,85	19	10	20	28	12	12	10	3	77	5	*	27	*	1952-53	[1]
2,53	22	5	40	13	9	10	10	2	7,56	7	Negligible.	13	Negligible.	1953-54	[2]
2,23	16	7	21	19	5	8	8	3	6,82	8	Negligible.	19	Negligible.	1954-55	
2,06	33	8	45	15	7	9	5	3	7,62	11	Nil	41	Nil	1955-56	

On the face of them some of the figures in Table V and Table VI from Bihar Statistical Hand-Books lead to some confusion. It is true that with our undeveloped technique and personnel for Statistical Survey we cannot expect very accurate figures. But the acreage under jute and sugarcane would not bear any comparison with the output figures in thousands of tons. It is possible that there might have been a shortfall in the output of a particular crop for some reason or other. But even with this margin it is not understood why there should be a very small increase in the output when there has been a considerable increase in the acreage. It has been difficult to strike any workable ratio between the two tables and at least the figures can only give us a picture of the maize crops and some idea of their acreages. In spite of the somewhat vagueness of the figures it would be worthwhile to go into the matter deeper.

Paddy.

Paddy occupying 1,026 thousand acres or nearly 69 per cent of the net cropped area in 1952-53 as against 905 thousand acres or 74.6 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56 is all-important crop of Champaran. This consists of *aghani* paddy and *bhadai* paddy both. Aghani rice is grown on the greater part of land. The largest paddy-growing tract is comprised within the Adapur, Shikarpur, Dhaka,

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*Less than 500 tons.

[1] *Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book* 1953, page 30.

[2] *Vide Bihar Statistical Hand-Book* 1955, pages, 38—40.

Bagaha and Bettiah thanas. In the Tarai tract to the north of the district paddy is almost the only crop grown by the Tharus.

In June or July after the commencement of the rains rice is sown broadcast on lands ploughed previously for three or four times. This is called seed nurseries. When the young plants are about a foot high they are generally transplanted in rains in another field, in which the soil has been puddled. Till towards the end of September the plant is allowed to grow with the aid of water. Then the practice known as *nigar* is resorted to and the water from the fields is drained off and the field is allowed to dry for 15 days. The late rains of *hathiya* is awaited eagerly, for its failure is bound to bring a calamity unless irrigational facilities are available. The rice comes to maturity in November or December when harvesting begins.

Sometimes paddy is sown broadcast in *chaurs*. This sort of paddy is generally very long and does not sink in water even in heavy inundations as the plant grows with water. It is sown in the month of February as soon as the low land dries up. It is commonly reaped from beats.

A noticeable feature of paddy cultivation is the arrangement of *nakshatra* according to which the different phases of paddy cultivation is conducted. These *nakshatras* are calculated according to phases of the moon and vary slightly from Gregorian calendar dates—the greatest variation is only for five days. Seeds are sown in the seed beds in *Adra nakshatra* (20th June to 5th July), transplantation is done during *Punarbas, Pukh* and *Asres nakshatras* (18th July to 15th August), *nigar* or draining of water from the field is done during *Utra nakshatra* (12th to 25th September), after which the heavy rains of *Hathiya nakshatra* (26th September to 7th October) is awaited. During *Chitra nakshatra* (8th to 20th October) it is customary to keep the fields wet; again to drain off the water at the commencement of *Siwati nakshatra* (21st October to 3rd November) and to leave the paddy on itself till the *Bisakha nakshatra* (4th to 15th November) after which harvesting begins. This schedule is religiously followed with slight variation according to the early or late commencement of monsoon.

Barley.

Barley is a *rabi* crop and is harvested in March or early April. It is grown on uplands. It is the single crop most extensively grown in the district after paddy. It occupied 144 thousand acres or 9.60 per cent of the net cropped area in 1952-53 as against 2,02,000 acres or 16.6 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56. It is a common edible food-crop. It is taken in the form of bread or *sattu* (flour). Its *sattu* is consumed with pleasure even by those who can afford better food. The output is poor in respect of quantity and quality both. The reason is poor cultivation for *rabi* done by the cultivators of this district in general.

Maize.

Maize is the third important in the district from the acreage point of view. This occupied an area of 118 thousand acres or 7.87 per cent of the net cropped area in 1952-53 as against 1,17,000 acres or 9.6 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56. It is a *bhadai* crop and is harvested in September. It is suited to the upland soil and hence, extensively grown in the south of the district. It keeps the *ryot* going for about four months in the year. It is eaten, when fried, for breakfast, when boiled as *bhat* for dinner and when made into bread for supper. It is also taken in the form of *sattu.* However, there is no hard and fast rule as to in what shape it is to be taken at which period of the day. When still only ripe, it is slightly fried and is rubbed with oil and lemon, sprinkled with salt and pepper and is eaten even by the well-to-do with much relish.

Wheat.

The area under wheat was 85 thousand acres or 5.67 per cent of the net area sown in 1952-53 as against 1,22,000 acres or 10 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56. It is most valuable of all the *rabi* crops. In the old District Gazetteer of Mr. O'Malley (1907) it was mentioned as *Devanna* or the food for the gods. It is a crop which requires good attention. It is usually grown on the lands in the vicinity of rivers or in the paddy fields from which paddy is washed away in floods. Poorer class of people generally grow it for sale.

OTHER FOOD-CROPS.

Among other food crops *masoor, khesari, arhar,* gram, *marua,* peas and potato are important. All these excepting *marua* are pulses and are generally consumed as a supplement to the principal food-corn of the people. However, some of these pulses, like gram, *arhar,* etc., are also consumed by the poorer class of people as their principal food. Gram is generally consumed by them in the form of *sattu.* *Marua* is consumed by the poorest class of the people. Potato solves the problem of vegetables to a great extent.

NON-FOOD-CROPS.

Sugarcane.

Among the non-food-crops sugarcane is the most important. This occupied 92 thousand acres of land or 6.67 per cent of the net cropped area in 1952-53 as against 1,43,000 acres or 11.7 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56. It is a crop which keeps the field engaged for the whole year. Most of the cane-growers supply it to big factories, while a few crush the cane at their own instance and sell out the product in the shape of *gur* and allied bye-products. Much earlier the cultivation of sugarcane was quite considerable, but later on it gave way to indigo cultivation and many of the concerns that were started as sugar factories gave up manufacture of sugar when indigo proved to be more profitable. This went so far that at the time of survey and settlement during 1892—1899 the area under this crop was estimated to be only 11,000 acres. However, this did not last long and sugarcane began to replace indigo as early as in the beginning of the current century. The area increased to 13,000 acres in 1906 and in 1930 the approximate area under this crop was estimated to be 21,000 acres. Now, as stated above, the area under this has increased to 92,000 acres and cultivation of indigo has completely died out from the district. Several Cane-growers' Co-operative Societies have been established in this district which look after the grievances of cultivators. Through this agency extension of area under this crop is also affected.

OTHER NON-FOOD-CROPS.

Among other non-food-crops jute and tobacco are important. Both these are cash crops and are grown only to be sold out. Climatically this district is not suited for jute cultivation. It is grown only because it fetches good price to the cultivators, although after the close of the Korean War price of jute suffered a severe slump. However, the industry has survived the slump. Efforts are being made to extend the area under jute cultivation and also to educate the cultivators in respect of jute cultivation. Help is also being taken from displaced persons from East Pakistan to extend jute cultivation in the district. In 1952-53 jute occupied 21,000 acres or 1.4 per cent of the net cropped area as against 20,000 acres or 1.6 per cent of the net cropped area in 1955-56. Area under tobacco has consistently been 1,000 acres from 1952-53 to 1955-56.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Besides food-crops and non-food-crops stated above, some kinds of fruits and vegetables are also grown in this district. Fruits are grown in gardens in which other kinds of crops are generally not grown, whereas vegetables are grown in the lands generally nearby the homestead of a cultivator. Near urban area vegetable is grown on an extensive scale. Sometimes other crops are also grown in the field in which vegetable is grown.

Some fruits grown in this district are mango, *lichi,* lime and lemon, guava, banana, plum, pears, pineapple, bael, papaya, jackfruit, etc. A table is given below to show the varieties, area and produce of these fruits in the district of Champaran :—

Name of fruits.	Varieties.	Area covered (in acres).	Yield per acre
			Mds.
1. Mango ..	(*i*) Early varieties—*Bombay* and *Zarda*	—	—
	(*ii*) Medium varieties—*Langaraur, dańka, sipia* and *krishnabhog.*	10,500	50 to 150
	(*iii*) Late varieties—*Fazli, bathua* and *sukul.*	..	..

Name of fruits.	Varieties.	Area covered (in acres.)	Yield per acre.
			Mds.
2. Lichi ..	*Purbi, deshi, bedana* and *china* ..	6,000	150 to 200
3. Lime and Lemon.	(*i*) Malta—*Mosambi* ..	..	..
	(*ii*) Orange—*Nagpuri* ..	..	..
	(*iii*) Lemon—*Kagzi, bedana* and *banarsi.*	6,000	150 to 200
	(*iv*) Sweetlime—*Nepali* ..	..	..
4. Guava ..	*Allahabadi, banarsi* and *deshi* ..	6,000	50 to 150
5. Banana ..	*Malbhog, martaman, china* and *batisa*	700	400
6. Plum ..	*Banarsi, nagpuri* and *deshi* ..	2,000	150 to 200
7. Pears ..	..	100	50
8. Pineapple ..	..	100	60 to 100
9. Bael ..	..	75	300 to 400
10. Papaya ..	Ranchi and Washington varieties ..	100	200 to 250
11. Jackfruit ..	..	125	200 to 250

Among the vegetables brinjal, cauliflower, cabbage, potato, tomato, onion, etc., are grown in this district. A table is given below to show the acreage, yield, etc., of some of the important vegetables grown in this district :—

Name of vegetables.	Varieties.	Area covered (in acres).	Yield per acre.
			Mds.
1. Brinjal ..	*Muktakeshi* and long purple ..	6,000	100
2. Cauliflower ..	Early patua and snow ball ..	227	300
3. Cabbage ..	Golden acre and drumshead ..	15	400
4. Potato ..	*Phulwa, katna,* Darjeeling, red romed, *satta.*	4,300	150
5. Tomato ..	Earliana, marglove, golden queen and ponderessa.	80	200
6. Onion ..	Red globe, White globe and Patna ..	1,440	100
7. Cucumber ..	(*i*) Bottle gourd (*ii*) Spunge gourd (*iii*) Bitter gourd (*iv*) Others } All local ..	275	50 to 100
8. Lady-finger ..	Local	300	150
9. Turnip ..	Snow ball	76	100
10. Beans ..	Local	200	50
11. Radish ..	Jaunpur *newar*	..	50

MARKETING OF FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Most of the surplus fruits and vegetables are sold in the *hats* and markets of the locality, where they are grown. This district does not generally export outside the district any fruits or vegetables excepting mango and *lichi* fruits. As a matter of fact, this district is deficient in respect of vegetables and it imports vegetables like onion, potato, etc. Such fruits which are exported outside the district are generally sold on contract basis in the very garden where they grow. The greatest defect in the marketing system of surplus fruits is that they are not properly graded before they are sold. They fetch very little price due to their perishability.

Approximately 26,000 maunds of mango and 2,000 maunds of *lichi* are annually exported outside the district.

HOLDINGS.

In his Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations (1892 to 1899) Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore has observed that the average size of a holding in this district was 5.19 acres or more than double of that in Muzaffarpur. This was not equal between the two subdivisions of Bettiah and Sadar in the district as the average size of a holding in Bettiah subdivision was of 6.11 acres while in Sadar it consisted of only 4.44 acres. The average size of a holding is connected with the density of population—the more dense the population the lesser is the average size of a holding and *vice versa*—and hence the average size of a holding in the district differed from one subdivision to another subdivision and also that the average size of a holding in this district was found to be greater than that of its adjoining districts of Muzaffarpur and Saran. In the Final Report on the Survey and Settlement (Revisional) of 1913—1919 Mr. Sweeney has given some statistics concerning the records of rights and from those statistics it appears that the average area of a holding in the district was 3.57 acres. This average area of a holding considerably differed from one subdivision to another subdivision. The average area of a holding in Sadar and Bettiah subdivisions was of 2.90 and 4.36 acres, respectively, as against 4.44 acres and 6.11 acres, respectively, calculated during the Survey and Settlement Operations of 1892—1899. This may suggest a rapid fall in the average area of a holding within a period of somewhat two decades. But here it may be mentioned that in his Final Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1913—1919) Mr. Sweeney has observed, "The areas of holdings are much more important, but unfortunately the present system of statistics does not give an accurate account of the facts. What we really require to know is the average size of a *raiyat's* holding...................... The statements based on *khatians* therefore do not enable us to measure the property of the *raiyat*..................... The facts remain, however, that our present statistics are defective in a most important particular,

.... ". Here again we find that the average area of a holding in this district was even at the Revisional Survey and Settlement bigger than the average area of a holding in the districts of Saran and Muzaffarpur.

Since 1919 there has not been any survey and settlement in the district and it is difficult to have an accurate account of the holding. With the census of 1951 a separate *District Census Hand-Book* was prepared for every district of Bihar which gives some information with regard to holdings. A table is given below from the District *Census Hand-Book of Champaran* which gives an idea of the size of holdings in the district :—

TABLE VII.

Distribution of 1,000 *agricultural holdings by size of holdings (based on sample survey of size holdings,* 1952).

Up to 0.50 acre	281
Exceeding 0.50 acre and up to 1 acre	172
Exceeding 1 acre and up to 2 acres	216
Exceeding 2 acres and up to 3 acres	103
Exceeding 3 acres and up to 4 acres	59
Exceeding 4 acres and up to 5 acres	49
Exceeding 5 acres and up to 10 acres	78
Exceeding 10 acres and up to 15 acres	22
Exceeding 15 acres and up to 30 acres	16
Exceeding 30 acres and up to 50 acres	4
Exceeding 50 acres	Nil.

On the basis of the abovementioned Table VII it is difficult to find out the exact average area of a holding in the district or in the subdivisions. Nevertheless, it gives an idea of the size of holdings in the district. The greatest number of holdings are of the size of up to .50 acre and next comes the position of the holdings of the size of 1 acre to 2 acres and then comes that of .50 acre to 1 acre. It will be seen that the size of more than 77 per cent holdings are of below 3 acres. As a holding may consist of several plots of land scattered over the whole village or even in several villages, the size of plots of land must be of a smaller size than of a holding. This presents a somewhat distressing feature of agricultural economy and suggests the holding to be uneconomic. The size of an average holding will go on reducing because of the present laws of succession will continue.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Agricultural operations generally vary according to the type of crop to be sown. It also depends on the type of soil and the rainfall. Agricultural operations consist of hoeing, ploughing, pulverising, manuring, seed sowing, transplantation, weeding, interculturing, irrigation water draining, earthing up, insecticide spraying, watching the crops, harvesting, threshing and storing. Besides, permanent improvements made in the fields like bunding, levelling, trenching, reclaiming lands for cultivation, etc., may also be taken as agricultural operations.

Hoeing.

Fields generally to be sown with paddy are hoed with the help of a spade, locally known as *kudal.* Such sugarcane fields are also hoed in which the cultivator does not want to remove the roots and replant sugarcane in it but to allow the sugarcane to grow from the roots. It is also resorted to in such fields the soil of which may be so stiff as not to be easily ploughed. Hoeing is generally done in a double cropped field after the *rabi* of small importance, such as *khesari, masoor,* gram, etc., is harvested and in a single cropped fields of paddy after the harvesting of paddy. On the average one labourer can hoe an area of 2 *kathas* to 3 *kathas* per day. But as hoeing is preferred to be done in the forenoon, the area hoed by an average labourer does not exceed 1 to 1½ *kathas.* When the soil is upturned by hoeing, the remains of the preceding crop goes under the soil and acts as a kind of manure. Hoed fields of paddy are only harrowed after heavy rains to make the field fit for transplanting paddy.

Ploughing.

In order to open the land, to dig out deep-rooted weeds or stubles, to irrigate the soil and to trap and store water for crops a field is ploughed every year. Generally a field is ploughed twice but when valuable crops like wheat, sugarcane, tobacco, etc., are to be sown in the fields, it is ploughed several times and ploughing continues till the soil becomes so loose as to allow a bamboo stick to go in it about half a foot without being hardly pressed. Seed nurseries are also ploughed with meticulous care and every clod is reduced to almost dust. Ordinarily, one plough opens up about 15 to 16 *kathas* of land in a day. However, the area varies according to soil, season, cattle used and the depth to which land is to be opened.

Pulverisation.

After ploughing, the soil of a field is generally allowed to dry, specially in the case of a field which contains more moisture than is considered necessary for a particular crop. Ploughing is followed by pulverisation. It is done with the help of harrow, locally known a *chauki* or *henga,* made of either wood or a pair of bamboo pieces clogged together. In case of hoed fields or the fields containing hard soil, wooden harrow is used as it is generally heavy enough to crush the clods. In respect of light soils, harrow made of bamboo is used. The harrow is pulled by one pair to several pairs of bullocks, the number of bullocks varying with the size of the harrow. A few persons sit on the harrow and bullocks pull it. In case of hoed field sometimes pulverisation is done also with the help of wooden hammers or something else, such as with the reverse side of a spade. Harrowing is also necessary at the time of puddling a field and making it ready for paddy transplantation.

Manuring.

Manuring is done at any time before or after ploughing or hoeing. But generally it is done after the field has been opened up so that the soil could easily absorb it. Manures like cowdung, compost, ash, etc., are carried to the field either on a bullock-cart or as head load. The manure is sometimes spread evenly in the field and sometimes small heaps of it are allowed to remain in the field at a distance of a few yards from each other which at the time of pulverisation spread automatically all over the field. Sometimes ash is spread on the small plants of *rabi*. like gram and *khesari*, etc. It is done with two motives, to manure the field and to provide a protection against stray cattle.

Seed-sowing.

In respect of some of the crops, seeds are separately grown in small nurseries and then transplanted, while in respect of others no such process is adopted. Crops for which seeds are usually separately grown, are *aghani* and *bhadai* paddies and *marua*. The nursery field is thoroughly cultivated before the seed is actually spread. In respect of crops, like wheat, barley, gram, *khesari*, also sometimes in case of paddy, etc., seeds are not sown separately. Quantity of seeds necessary for an acre of land varies from crop to crop. Seeds often need be irrigated, specially when the monsoon breaks a little lately. *Marua* seeds require more watering than any other seeds.

Transplantation.

Transplantation is necessary only in case of those crops for which seeds are grown separately, viz., *aghani* and *bhadai* paddies and *marua*. As Champaran is predominantly a *aghani* paddy growing area, transplantation is chiefly important here in respect of *aghani* paddy only. For *aghani* paddy as well as for *bhadai* paddy the field is first puddled well and harrowed and the soil is made muddy. The seeds are taken out from the seed nurseries where they are earlier sown and are more or less planted in line at a distance of generally one foot. A number of seed plants, varying from 3 to 5, are thrust at a single place in the muddy soil. Transplantation in respect of paddy is done only when there is sufficient rain. But in respect of *marua*, transplantation is done even at a time when it has rained scantily.

Weeding.

Along with the small plants of crops many unnecessary grasses grow in the field and sometimes these grasses are so thick that they deter the growth of the main plants. It is considered necessary by the cultivators to weed out the useless plants from the field. This is done with the help of an instrument, called *khurpi*. In case of paddy crops specially in the field where there is some water, weeding is done by hands without the help of any instrument. All the useless plants are pulled out of the soil. This process is repeated twice or thrice where necessary.

Interculturing.

Interculturing means culturing or stirring the soil in between the crop plants. It is also done with the help of *khurpi*. In respect of some of the crops, it is simultaneously done at the time of weeding. This is done to aerate the soil, to prepare a milch (a loose layer of dry soil as covering), to kill the harmful insects and to make the soil congenial for the rapid growth of crop plants.

Irrigation.

With the growth of the crop and longer intervals of rains the soil of a field looses moisture. But as moisture in the soil is very essential for the growth of plant, the cultivators resort to irrigation. In respect of certain crops scanty watering is needed every morning and evening or once a day. In such cases water is taken in a pitcher or bucket and is spread over the field. But there are certain crops which need heavy watering, varying from two inches to half a foot or so. Such plants are irrigated with the canal water and where canal water is not available with the water taken out from wells, tanks, tube-wells, etc. Water from wells and tanks is taken out with the help of bucket, *karin* or some other water-lifting devices. At places electric pumps are also used. Deep watering to a crop is sometimes needed twice or thrice according to the changes in the rainfall conditions. (Details of irrigation are discussed later.)

Water Draining.

Draining the stagnant water from the field becomes sometimes necessary, specially in case of paddy. This is done at the commencement of *Siwati nakshatra*, that is in the last week of October. It is done with pleasure where the cultivators can have water easily from canals or any other source if rains during *Hathiya nakshatra* fail. However, in the *Bisakha nakshatra*, that is, in the first fortnight of November the water from the field is again drained off never to be filled in again until the crop is harvested.

Water draining in Champaran is a big problem specially in respect of *chaurs* (low paddy fields). There are many *chaurs* in this district where water accumulates during rainy season and does not dry up at times even at the time of sowing. Recently some steps have been taken by the Government to provide a planned drainage system at least in respect of a few *chaurs*.

Earthing Up.

Earthing up is done chiefly in respect of some of the root crops, such as potatoes. Earthing up is done also in respect of sugarcane and maize. Soil from near about the plant is dug up and heaped at the base of the plant. This is done to give support to the plant and to keep the tubers and roots under the soil. This is done with the help of *kudali* (spade) and *khurpi.*

Insecticide Spraying.

Certain kinds of pests and diseases at times attack the plant and kill its growth. When such pests and diseases appear, farmers spray some indigenous medicines or the ones suggested by the Agriculture Department. However, insecticides recommended by the Agriculture Department have not yet become very popular. They are chiefly used in big farms only. For this the ignorance of the cultivators is responsible.

Watching the Crop.

Watching the crop against being destroyed by animals, birds and stray cattle always remains a great problem for the cultivators. Sometimes, protection against thieves also becomes necessary. A farmer has to keep a permanent watchman to guard against such evils. Sometimes co-operative efforts are also made to guard against such destructions. Co-operative efforts in this respect are always beneficial to farmers, for each of them is not required to keep a watchman separately. However, such efforts only succeed when a number of farmers sow their field with one type of crop and in one locality only.

Harvesting.

Harvesting is one of the most important agricultural operations. This is commonly known as *katani,* chiefly in respect of crops having big stems or straws, such as paddy, wheat, barley, etc. So far *rabi* crops like gram, *khesari, masuri,* etc., are concerned the harvesting is called *ukharni* or uprooting the crop as such crops are not cut but are up-rooted.

Crops having big stems or stalks are cut with the help of an instrument known as *hasua* (sickle). Sugarcane is cut with the help of an instrument known as *dabila* which is just like sickle with plain edge but many times heavier than it. Pulse crops are uprooted as stated above. Root-crops like potatoes are harvested with the help of *kudal* (spade).

Harvested food crops like paddy, wheat, barley, gram, etc., are arranged into bundles and brought to the threshing floor either on the head of labourers or on bullock-carts. Here the bundles are first stocked.

Threshing.

Harvesting is followed by threshing. Bundles of crops are opened and spread round a pole and a number of bullocks are run over them round the pole. This process continues till the grain is separated from the straw. Later the grain is collected and winnowed against the breeze to separate it from chaff.

Storing.

The method of storing varies from crop to crop. Grains are stored either for consumption or for seed or for sale at a later date. Grain kept either for consumption or for sale is stored in either mud-built *kothis* or granaries made of bamboo. Grain for seeds are either stored in small baskets plastered with mud and cowdung or in a kind of bag made of straws which is also plastered with mud and cow-dung. This plastering provides protection against insects.

It is a problem to store root-crops like potatoes as it can be preserved well only in cold storage which is very rarely available in the remote villages. Sometimes a kind of powder is used to protect potatoes, but this spoils their very taste. There is no cold storage in the district for preserving potatoes, mangoes, etc. Warehouse facilities at State level are not available.

On the whole, it may be said that the methods of storing are not satisfactory.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Among the agricultural implements mention may be made of tractor, plough, harrow, pick-axe, weeding-hook, sickle, water-lifts, etc. The most important of these are tractor and plough. In the livestock census of 1945 the number of agricultural implements were also accounted for. According to this census there were 1,16,505 wooden ploughs, 11,231 iron ploughs, 37,579 carts and 101 tractors. Since then no census of agricultural implements has taken place and it is difficult to ascertain the number of agricultural implements in the district. However according to *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book of* 1953 the number of tractors in the district in 1951 was 111.

Plough.

Plough is the age old implement. The plough generally used in this district is either of wood or iron, but wooden plough is very commonly used as the above mentioned figures of these two ploughs would suggest.

A wooden plough consists of several pieces. The principal parts are *hal* (main body), *lagan* (the portion caught by the ploughman at the time of ploughing), *palo* (yoke), *haris* (the wooden pole connecting the main body of the plough and the yoke) and *phal* (spear). All the wooden parts are made by the village carpenter and *phal* is made by the village blacksmith and is even sometimes imported from outside. It is the *phal* which actually pierces the ground. The tilth attained by wooden ploughs is generally 3 inches to 4 inches. A wooden plough with good bullock ploughs an area of one bigha in a day. The area ploughed by a simple plough varies with the nature of the soil and the type of bullocks employed. An improvised plough known as Bihar Plough has been introduced. It ensures a deeper plough and breaking of clods.

The iron plough is rather a new introduction in the field of agriculture. As a matter of fact it is generally favoured in the cane growing belt of the district. Ordinary bullocks are not capable of pulling it. In the cane growing belt of the district bullocks of better breed have to play duel role, viz., to pull iron ploughs and to pull carts heavily loaded with sugarcane. This plough is being gradually popularised by the Agriculture Department and cultivators are also taking to it.

Tractors.

Tractors are quite recent to make a headway in the field of agriculture in the district. The number of tractors in this district in 1951 was more than any other district of Bihar. There has been a vast tract of land in this district awaiting reclamation and as a measure to reclaim waste lands, tractors were imported in the district on a big scale on Government initiative. However, this does not find favour with the ordinary cultivators due to several reasons such as heavy capital investment, paucity of large farms, etc. Operating cost of tractors is also considered to be high because of the cultivators being quite ignorant of the mechanical complexities and also due to paucity of technical personnel, etc.

Harrow.

The harrow, locally known as *chauki* or *henga,* is used after ploughing. The upturned soil after ploughing is still full of clods and to crush the clods harrowing is necessary. Harrow is either made of wood or bamboos. Wooden harrow is generally several times heavier than a harrow made of bamboo and is used generally in a field having considerably big clods. It is square like a wooden beam varying in weight from a maund to 3 or 4 maunds. The length of a harrow varies from 6 feet to 12 feet. Bullocks are tied with a yoke and the harrow is attached with the yoke with the help of rope. One or several men stand on the harrow, bullocks are made to run and the clods falling under the harrow naturally go to pieces. So far a bamboo made harrow is concerned, it is made by putting together two pieces of bamboo. These two pieces of bamboo are clogged together at either ends with the help of a nail either made of wood or bamboo or iron. A bamboo harrow is generally used in a field having comparatively less tenacious soil or in which clods are considerably small. It is generally kept by small cultivators. An area of about 3 to 4 acres is harrowed in a day with the help of a pair of bullocks.

Water-lifts.

The water lifts used on wells for irrigating fields are locally known as either *latha* or *koor*. The bucket used for lifting water is generally made of iron with a pointed bottom. It is imported in this district from the nearby urban markets. The bucket is tied with a big bamboo piece with a rope and the bamboo piece in its turn hangs like a balance with two poles which are erected nearby the well for this purpose. It helps cultivators pulling water from wells with great ease. At places electric pumps are also seen but they are not popular in the district. Water obtained from the electric pumps is expensive.

Pick-axe.

Pick-axe is locally known as *kudal* and is used in, generally upturning the soil of such fields in which plough cannot easily move due to stiffness of the soil. This is also used to attain greater tilth and to culture that part of the field where plough cannot easily go, such as near the angles and near the raised boundary lines. This is of use to the cultivators in various other work. It is made of iron and is generally fitted in a thin bamboo piece of 2½ feet to 3 feet. The pick-axe is generally imported from outside, but locally made ones are also not unknown.

Miscellaneous.

There are several other implements which a cultivator uses in the ordinary course of his agricultural operations. Among such implements mention may be made of cart, axe, locally known as *kulhari,* weeding hook, locally known as *khurpi,* sickle, locally known as *hasua,* etc.

LIVESTOCK.

The importance of cattle to the cultivators can hardly be exaggerated. Like the other districts of North Bihar, cultivation in this district also almost entirely depends on bullocks. The plough cattle are generally of the local breed. However, many fine and well conditioned bullocks are also seen in the district. Such bullocks are generally to be found in the cane growing region of the district and are chiefly kept for the purpose of pulling the cart loaded with sugarcane. The deplorable condition of bullocks in general has attracted the attention of the Government in recent years and some efforts have been made to improve the breed. An Artificial Insemination Centre has been opened at Motihari with three sub-centres at Jiudhara, Turkaulia and Sugauli to improve the breed of the cattle. Although artificial insemination method has been introduced in the district very recently (1957) and the people are very conservative, but it has been reported that the method is gaining popularity among the livestock owners. Some bulls of high pedigree have been distributed in the district to up-grade the local breed. Sheep and goats are also found in the district. Sheep are more numerous in the north but goats are fairly distributed over the whole of the district.

Much information is available in the *Final Report of Survey and Settlement Operations in* 1892 *to* 1899, by C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Esq., I.C.S., in 1900—wherein he has supplied the number of livestock, ploughs and carts, thana by thana to provide a tentative index of agricultural prosperity along with the livestock situation in the district.

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Total area in sq. miles.	Cows.	Bulls and bullocks.	Male buffaloes.	Cow buffaloes.	Horses and ponies.	Calves including buffalo calves.	Sheep.	Goats.	Mules and donkeys.	Total no. of cattle of all sorts.	Ploughs.	Carts.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Bagaha	619	70,636	46,107	3,686	10,870	2,880	20,156	4,151	11,853	1,437	1,71,776	16,850	3,051	
2	Shikarpur	554	77,158	58,929	3,522	14,439	2,612	25,636	3,503	18,318	1,299	2,05,416	21,994	4,115	
3	Bettiah	547	59,587	59,058	4,742	18,315	3,732	5,103	7,458	33,695	1,088	1,92,778	23,742	1,100	
	Subdivisional Total ..	1,720	2,07,381	1,64,094	11,950	43,624	9,224	50,895	15,112	63,866	3,824	5,69,970	62,586	8,266	
4	Adapur	224	16,505	26,329	1,064	8,333	1,864	5,804	941	17,539	710	79,089	10,515	1,508	
5	Dhaka	335	18,462	29,304	1,321	9,437	2,094	6,941	1,772	24,450	937	94,718	10,054	2,162	
6	Motihari	290	12,708	16,411	819	5,321	1,364	811	2,061	11,864	305	51,664	4,924	435	
7	Gobindganj ..	286	16,207	16,371	1,034	5,922	1,374	2,966	3,158	14,605	421	62,058	5,358	4,356	
8	Kesaria	273	15,968	20,279	931	7,514	1,754	5,708	2,661	17,526	718	73,059	6,562	1,911	
9	Madhuban ..	122	8,441	9,548	473	3,606	797	3,154	969	8,294	296	35,578	3,413	630	
	Sadar Subdivisional Total ..	1,530	88,291	1,18,242	5,642	40,133	9,247	25,384	11,562	94,278	3,387	3,96,166	40,826	11,002	
	District Total	3,250	2,95,672	2,82,336	17,592	83,757	18,471	76,279	26,674	1,58,144	7,211	9,66,136	1,03,412	19,268	

He worked out a ratio between cattle and population as three heads of cattle per family, or more than one per two persons, against 1.75 and one head to three persons respectively of Muzaffarpur. Bettiah subdivision had 6 lakhs of cattle against 4 lakhs in the Sadar subdivision. Bullock carts were 19,268 in all or nearly four times the number for Muzaffarpur. The obvious reason was that there were only 15 miles of the Tirhut State Railway in the district. The trade to and from Nepal mainly depended upon the bullock carts. Indigo also used to be carried by the same. Furnishing a thanawise detailed statement of number of cattle per 100 heads of the population he gives us the following figures from which we pick up only the subdivisional figures :—

		Population.		Number of cattle per 100 heads of population.							
Name of subdivision.	Area in square miles.	Total.	Number per square miles.	Cows.	Cow-buffaloes.	Sheep.	Goats.	Bulls and bullocks.	Horses and ponies.	Cattle of all sorts, including male buffaloes, mules and donkeys.	No. of calves per 100 cows and cow-buffaloes.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Bettiah	1,720	7,59,865	442	29	6	1.9	8	22	1.2	75	20
Sadar	1,530	10,99,660	719	8	4	1.1	7	11	0.8	36	20
District Total	3,250	18,59,465	572	16	5	1.5	9	15	1.0	52	20

Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore writes further: "The proportion of milch-kine (cows and cow-buffaloes) per 100 souls is only 11 in the Sadar against 33 in the Bettiah subdivision. In the Bettiah thana the number is lowest for the northern subdivision, but even so is nearly double that for any thana in the southern subdivision. Milch-kine are particularly numerous in Bagaha and Shikarpur, where grazing has to be provided not only for the local cattle but also for large heads driven over from Gorakhpur and Saran. In the Sadar thanas there are 12 milch-kine per 100 persons, that is to say, more than one to supply milk and *ghee* to ten persons. This is little better than in Muzaffarpur. But if the Bettiah subdivision is included, then there is one cow or cow-buffalo to every five persons.

Sheep, too, are more numerous in the north, while goats, on the other hand, are very fairly distributed over the whole district, the only kind of livestock of numerical importance of which this can be said.

Passing on to draught-cattle, here against 10½ heads per 100 persons in the Sadar, 21½ heads, i.e., about double is returned for Bettiah. The cause, as I have said is the plentiful grazing and large cart traffic in the north. Bettiah is the thana returning the lowest number of the three northern thanas, viz., 18, but the only Sadar thana approaching this is Adapur with 16. Adapur is the most cultivated thana in the district, and this high figure, therefore, is in this instance an undoubted indication of agricultural prosperity. Dhaka, also another rich area, returns nearly 11 draught-cattle per 100 persons, Motihari and Madhuban come last with 9.

"The statistics of agricultural stock in the strictest sense will now be considered, and information of the number of bullocks, ploughs and carts returned by Muzaffarpur, Gorakhpur, and Gaya are compared with the Champaran figures:—

Name of district.	Total.	Area in square miles. Cultivated. Total in sq. miles.	Area in square miles. Cultivated. Percentage of total area.	Area in square miles. Uncultivated. Total in sq. miles.	Area in square miles. Uncultivated. Percentage of total area.	Population.	Bulls and bullocks. Total number.	Bulls and bullocks. No. per sq. mile of cultivated area.	Ploughs. Total number.	Ploughs. No. per sq. mile of cultivated area.	Carts. Total number.	Carts. No. per sq. mile of cultivated area.	Livestock of all sorts. Total number.	Livestock of all sorts. No. per 100 persons of population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Champaran ..	3,250	2,263	69.63	987	30.37	18,59,464	2,82,336	125	1,03,412	46	19,268	8	9,66,136	52
2. Muzaffarpur ..	3,035	2,430	80.11	605	19.89	27,12,857	2,42,703	99	85,147	35	5,043	2	8,10,950	30
3. Gorakhpur ..	4,581	3,907	67.82	674	32.18	29,94,057	5,86,468	118	2,70,378	87	24,390	7	1,71,894	56
4. Gaya ..	389	271	69.66	118	30.34	..	40,494	149	12,969	48	62	0.02	*	*

*Figures not available.

"The figures of Champaran and Gorakhpur are approximate. The number of cattle of all sorts per 100 persons is 52 in Champaran, against 56 in Gorakhpur, Muzaffarpur coming to a bad third with only 30. The same conditions are noticeable in respect of draught-cattle; Champaran has 125 per cultivated square mile and Gorakhpur 118, against 99 only in Muzaffarpur, but here Gaya heads the list with 149. In the matter of carts per square mile Gorakhpur and Champaran are again very similarly circumstanced, but with four times the number found in Muzaffarpur, where the average is only 2. In the number of ploughs per square mile while Muzaffarpur returns 35 and Champaran 46, Gorakhpur returns so high a figure, viz., 87, that I doubt its accuracy. Gaya returns 48 only, and both in this district and Champaran draught-cattle are more numerous than in Gorakhpur. Gaya has the largest number of bullocks per plough, viz., three. Then comes Muzaffarpur with 2.8, closely followed by Champaran with 2.7; Gorakhpur returns only 2.1 per plough, an exceedingly low and abnormal number.

"Confining our attention to the Champaran district we find the largest number of draught-cattle per cultivated square mile in all the thanas of the Bettiah subdivision, but it is curious to note that Bettiah equals Shikarpur, and Bagaha stands third. But without doubt, both the Bagaha and Shikarpur figures would have been very much higher had the statistics for agriculturists living in the hills outside the surveyed area been included. Among the Sadar thanas, Adapur has the largest number of bullocks, viz., 138 per square mile of cultivation, followed by Dhaka with 105; next come the two adjacent thanas of Kesaria and Madhuban, with 96 and 94, respectively; and last of all are Motihari and Gobindganj, the former with 80 heads and the latter with only two more. The same order is remarkably preserved, too, in the statistics for ploughs. But Bettiah heads the list alone with 62 ploughs, or 10 acres per plough. In Bagaha and Shikarpur the area per plough is over 11 acres. Adapur, with 55 ploughs per square mile, is one better than Bagaha. The next thana is Dhaka, with 36 only. In Motihari there is the extraordinarily large area of 26 acres of cultivated land per plough, and in Gobindganj there are nearly 24 acres. These two thanas would appear to be under-stocked, though, owing to the soil being light, it is probably ploughed with ease and rapidity."

Regarding the availability and the condition of livestock, Mr. L. S. S. O'Malley, I.C.S., writes in his *District Gazetteer of Champaran* in 1907 that "there is abundant pasture in Bagaha and Shikarpur, which attracts great herds of cattle from the southern thanas and also from the adjoining districts of Saran, Muzaffarpur, and to a great extent, Gorakhpur. Cattle are consequently numerous, and every family in the district owns three heads of cattle on the average. Milch-kine are particularly numerous in the north and even in the headquarters subdivision there are 12 milch-kine for every 100 persons, i.e., more than one to supply milk and *ghee* to 10 persons.

Draught cattle are also numerous owing to the deficiency of railway communications, the large demand for carts by the indigo factories, and the trade to and from Nepal, which is carried on by bullock carts. Buffaloes are less common than in the districts south of the Ganges, and the soil being generally light, they are not required to draw the plough. Sheep are more numerous in the north, but goats are fairly distributed over the whole of the district. Donkeys are kept by dhobis, and pigs are to be seen in many villages. Veterinary relief is afforded at a veterinary dispensary at Motihari, and large cattle fairs are held annually at Madhuban and Bettiah ".

In comparison to the above conditions, it was found by J. A. Sweeney, I.C.S., during the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations in 1913—1919 that there had been a change in the agricultural prosperity for the better. In the earlier Report (1900) the total number of cattle enumerated was 966, 136 as against the figure of 11,39,039, i.e., an increase of 18 per cent during the Revisional Survey (1922). Mr. J. A. Sweenev was of the opinion that either of the figures could not pretend to be complete, " as considerable numbers of cattle graze in the jungle and hill areas of thanas Shikarpur and Bagaha which were outside the scope of the enquiry ".

The following comparative statement for the two settlement operations reveal interesting figures :—

	Number of draught cattle.		Number of ploughs.		Livestock ratio to population.	
	Total.	Per cultivated sq. mile.	Total.	Per cultivated sq. mile.	Total cattle.	Cattle per 100 population.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Last settlement ..	2.82,336	125	1,03,412	46	9,66,136	52
Present settlement	2,97,130	133	1.17.418	52	11,39,039	59

In the latest settlement operations, draught cattle numbered 2,97,130 as against 2,82,336 enumerated in the earlier settlement, giving an average of 91 to the square mile and 133 to the cultivated square mile. Ploughs numbered 1,17,418 or 52 per square mile of cultivated area. The comparative figures thus show a distinct advance.

R. E. Swanzy, I.C.S., mentions in his Revised District Gazetteer of Champaran in 1932 about the practice of cattle-breeding in Champaran. The plough-cattle were locally used and a large number of bullocks used to be exported to different parts of India specially

Bengal. In 1930 the cattle census recorded 808 bulls, 3,82,614 bullocks, 3,70,581 cows and 2,26,417 young stock, 11,826 buffalo-bulls, 1,24,280 cow-buffaloes and 88,983 young stock—the total being 12,95,509. The increase was steady, maintaining its earlier trend. About the conditions of the livestock R. E. Swanzy, I.C.S., mentions in the District Gazetteer of Champaran of 1932 :—

"There are many fine and well-conditioned bullocks to be seen about the district chiefly cart-bullocks, but the large herds of cows and calves are generally in extremely bad condition—undersized and half-starved. This is due to indiscriminate over-breeding and also the fact that insufficient ground is kept for grazing and there are very few fodder crops grown. There is no reason or excuse for this state of affairs as fodder crops such as guinea-grass can be grown in mango and other groves at an almost negligible cost. *Janera* is the only real fodder crop grown, but rice, wheat and barley straw are also used for fodder. In most villages buffalo-cows are used for milking more than cows. Buffaloes are not used as draught animals. Goats are numerous everywhere in the district, 5,77,618 being recorded in 1930. They are a small type but are generally in fairly good condition. They are not generally milked."

A table is given below to show the livestock population (Bovine) in the district since 1920 :—

Year.	Total cattle.	Male cattle.	Female cattle.	Young stock or calves.	Total buffaloes.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1920	8,42,986	3,25,451	3,32,665	1,84.870	1,86,997
1925	8,96,025	3.71,440	3.39,087	1,85.498	2,00,081
1930	9,80,420	3,83,422	3,70.581	2.26,417	2,25,089
1940	8,22,504	2,64,582	2,56,350	1.71,981	1,73,786
1945	6,65,465	3.08,841	2,07,928	1,48,696	1,84,819
1951	6,90,751	4,12,491	2,90,931	1,87,329	1,91,933
1956	8,52,415	4.17,188	2,53,065	1,82,162	2,00,754

Year.	Male buffaloes.	Cow buffaloes.	Young stock buffalo calves.	Sheep.	Goats.
1	7	8	9	10	11
1920	10,036	1,04.682	72,297	25.498	2,88,507
1925	8,135	1,18,923	73,023	28,897	4.05,627
1930	11,826	1.24,280	88,983	31,486	5,17,618
1940	5,961	1,03,509	64,316	20,312	3,40,804
1945	29,394	87,233	68,192	15,752	2,45,916
1951	10,504	1,10,720	70,709	14,501	4,14,636
1956	6,475	1,13,333	80,946	14,551	4,73,682

The table shows the figures of the main species of livestock in the district since 1920 onwards to 1956. The overall trend is more or less stationary so far as the total cattle strength is concerned. Occasional variations are also there, e.g., in 1930 the figure goes up as high as 9,80,420 recording a substantial rise over the previous census figures. But again a downward movement is visible which goes down steep in 1945, i.e., 6,65,465 possibly due to excess consumption of cattle flesh and hide during the war emergencies. Fortunately, the position is again recouped and in 1951, it is recorded as 8,90,751, i.e., more than what has been shown in 1956 census. This upward and downward movement in the census figures for cattle wealth are shared proportionately by all the male, female and young stock groups. The figures for buffaloes show a disturbing trend of going too far from the normal figures on either side. In 1920, total strength has been recorded as 1,86,997 which showed a perceptibly increasing trend through the next two census but goes down steeply, even below the 1920 figures, in 1940 when it has been recorded as 1,73,786. But fortunately, the position improves thereafter and showing a consistent upward trend, the figure again touches 2,00,754 in 1956 census. The most disturbing spectacle is presented by the figures relating to sheep strength in the district. The figures show a definite and drastic continuity in fall in the number of sheep from 25,498 in 1920 to 20,312 in 1940, 14,551 in 1956. Only in 1925 and 1930 censuses, do the figures show any upward trend. Goats, however, show both upward and downward and finally again upward trend. In 1920, there were 2,88,507 goats in Champaran who numbered 4,05,627 in 1925 and 5,17,618 in 1930. Then again the figures fall in 1940 and 1945 when it has been recorded that 3,40,804 and 2,45,916 goats were in the district, respectively. But the position seems to be improving from that time for the 1951 and 1956 census figures mention 4,14,636 and 4,73,682 goats, respectively, in the district of Champaran.

When the 1956 Livestock Census figures are compared with the figures of 1951 human census in the district the distribution of the livestock population throughout the district works out at one head per 2.35 square miles, while the distribution on human population comes to one head per 1.6 persons. The ratio of cattle to human population is one cattle per 2.9 persons whereas buffaloes make out a ratio of one per 12.5 persons. On the subdivisional level, the Sadar subdivision has got one bovine head per 3.2 square miles while one bovine head per 3.1 persons. In Bettiah subdivision the position is not very different from that of the Sadar subdivision so far the ratio to land area is concerned, in this subdivision there is one bovine head per 3.45 square miles of area while the ratio to population is much better than what is there in the Sadar subdivision. There is roughly one head of bovine per individual in this subdivision. Cattle population in the Sadar subdivision is one per 3.75 persons and one per four square miles of area whereas there is one buffallo per

14.98 square miles of area and one per 14 persons in Bettiah subdivision, respectively. In Bettiah subdivision there is one cattle per 4.24 square miles and one cattle per 2.3 persons whereas there is one buffalo in every 20 square miles of area and one per 10.2 persons in Sadar subdivision.

A classified list of livestock (bovine only) for 1951 and 1956 is given below to show their utility :—

	1951.	1956.
Cattle—		
(*i*) Breeding bulls, i.e., entire males, over three years kept or used for breeding only.	1859	816
(*ii*) Working bullocks and uncastrated males over three years kept for work only.	3,93,816	4,08,342
(*iii*) Bulls and bullocks over three years not in use for breeding or work.	16,836	8,030
(*iv*) Breeding cows, i.e., cows over three years kept for breeding or milk production—		
(*a*) In milk	82,593	98,261
(*b*) Dry	1,31,054	1,06,807
(*c*) Not calved	56,051	37,232
(*v*) Cows over three years used for work only.	14,215	4,467
(*vi*) Cows over three years not in use for work or breeding purposes.	7,018	6,298
(*vii*) Young stock—		
(*a*) Under one year	97,452	98,115
(*b*) One to three years	89,877	80,047
Buffaloes—		
(*viii*) Breeding bulls, i.e., entire males over three years kept or used for breeding only.	1,701	679
(*ix*) Working bullocks, i.e., bullocks and uncastrated males over three years kept for work only.	7,259	5,209
(*x*) Bulls and bullocks over three years not in use for breeding or work.	1,544	587
(*xi*) Breeding cows, i.e., cows over three years kept for breeding or milk production—		
(*a*) In milk	41,112	62,430
(*b*) Dry	41,441	32,750
(*c*) Not calved	22,241	14,971

	1951.	1956.
(*xii*) Cows over three years used for work	3,017	1,606
(*xiii*) Cows over three years not in use for work or breeding purposes.	2,909	1,576
Young stock—		
(*i*) Under one year	40,347	51,880
(*ii*) One to three years	30,362	29,066
	10,82,684	10,53,169

A classification of livestock (bovine only) in 1951 and 1956 censuses reveals a comparative picture showing increase or decrease in numbers under different heads, as the case may be. In 1951 there were 1,839 breeding bulls (cattle) as against 816 in 1956 which is after all not a good trend. But the number of working bullocks rises from 3,93,816 in 1951 to 4.08,342 in 1956. For buffaloes also the number of breeding bulls were much bigger in 1951, i.e., 1,701 as against their number in 1956—679 only—thus showing a big fall from the previous census. Working bullocks also register a fall in 1956 in comparison to 1951 figures. In 1951 there were 7,259 working bullocks as against 5,209 in 1956. Bulls and bullocks not used for breeding or work numbered 16,836 in cattle and 1,544 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 8,030 in cattle and 587 in buffaloes in 1956. Cows over three years used for work only numbered 14,215 in cattle and 3,017 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 4,467 in cattle and 1,606 in buffaloes in 1956. This shows that the use of cattle in 1956 fell perceptively over the 1951 figure while in buffaloes the same trend is apparent. Milch cows numbered 82,593 in cattle and 41,112 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 98,261 in cattle and 62,430 in buffaloes in 1956. That means that more buffaloes have been milched in the later years than in the early fifties. Another fact is also apparent that while though increasing over the 1951 figure the increased proportion of the milched cows in cattle is less than the increased proportion of milched buffaloes. Draught cows numbered 1,31,054 in cattle and 41,441 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 1,06,807 in cattle and 32,750 in buffaloes in 1956. Cows not calved numbered 56,051 in cattle and 22,241 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 37.232 in cattle and 14,971 in buffaloes in 1956. Cows neither for use for work for in breeding numbered 7,018 in cattle and 2,909 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 6,298 in cattle and 1,576 in buffaloes in 1956. The 1956 thus registers a fall in comparison to the position in 1951. Youngstock under one year numbered 97,452 in cattle and 40,347 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 98,115 in cattle and 51,880 in buffaloes in 1956. Youngstock grouped under one to three years numbered 89,877 in cattle and 30,362 in buffaloes in 1951 as against 80,047 in cattle and 29,066 in buffaloes in 1956. The total bovine numbered 10,82,684 in 1951 as against 10,53,169 in 1956, thus showing an overall shortfall in the latter census.

Livestock Mortality.

Livestock like their human counterpart do suffer from diseases, some of them take epidemic form, others endemic. The main diseases from which the bovine population generally suffer are Rinderpest, Foot and Mouth diseases, Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia and other contagious diseases like Black Quarter, Anthrax and Sorah. About the prevalence of cattle-diseases in earlier days, we have come to know about two types of cattle-diseases which have particularly been mentioned in some of the old correspondence. Letter no. 22, dated Camp Sugauli, the 10th February 1864, from F. M. Halliday, Officiating Magistrate, to the Commissioner of Circuit, Patna Division, mentioned two kinds of contagious diseases, viz., *gotee* and *coraveab*. *Gotee* usually spread from the end of February to the end of April but it also broke out earlier at times. The other disease generally occurred only in hot season. The affected animals had fever followed by sore between the hoofs and the mouth swelled slightly. The tongue would come out and the teeth became loose and then worms appeared at the gum, tongue and feet of the animals. Death came to the animals within ten to twenty days. It also attacked goats, sheep and buffaloes.

A table is given below to show the livestock mortality (bovine population) due to contagious diseases in the district since 1945-46 :—

Years.		Causes of death.				
		Rinderpest.	Foot and Mouth diseases.	Haemorrahagic septicaemia.	Other contagious diseases.	Total.
1		2	3	4	5	6
1945-46	..	544	3	94	13	654
1946-47	..	123	..	117	6	246
1947-48	..	..	2	102	..	104
1948-49	..	..	1	42	2	45
1949-50	..	6	6	387	104	503
1950-51	..	2	..	73	1	76
1951-52	..	..	2	63	50	115
1952-53	..	93	..	55	61	209
1953-54	..	55	1	126	108	290
1954-55	..	33	..	99	39	171
1955-56	..	5	4	126	87	222
1956-57	..	337	6	99	63	505
1957-58	..	196	3	69	18	286

It will be seen from the above statement that Rinderpest and Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia have been a drain on the cattle wealth of the district. Both these diseases account for the highest number of deaths than rest of the diseases put together. Foot and Mouth diseases account for only a few lives a year. There are years when no cattle died of foot and mouth diseases. The year 1945-46 seemed to be a crisis year for the livestock for in that year the largest number of death occurred in the district, i.e., 654 cattle died from this fell disease. Rinderpest often breaks out in an epidemic form. Giving a respite for a few years in between this disease again began to cause large scale death from 1952-53 and reached the figure of 337 in 1956-57. Though going down the year 1957-58 by no means can be said to be a relieving year. Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia appears to be more consistent in its heavy toll year after year than any other diseases. The least number of death occurred due to this disease was 42 in 1948-49 and the victims numbered 387 in the very next year, i.e., in 1949-50. Other contagious diseases took a toll of 108 in 1953-54. The statement above gives only the picture of fatality among the bovine population of the district. The real picture becomes apparent when one checks up the figures of actual number of attacks from the various diseases.

Sources of Veterinary Aid.

In the second decade of the present century one veterinary hospital at Motihari and another veterinary dispensary at Ramnagar were opened by the Government. One hospital at Bettiah was also opened by the Bettiah Raj which was then under Court of Wards. This hospital was also taken over by the Government in 1952. These three veterinary institutions only functioned in the whole of the district of Champaran for a considerable period. However, in 1951-52 there were several hospitals and dispensaries functioning in the district. A list is given below to show the number of hospitals and dispensaries with their jurisdiction :—

Veterinary Hospitals	Jurisdiction.
(1) Motihari (Provincialised in 1957).	Municipal area.
(2) Bettiah	Municipal area.
(3) Bagaha	Bagaha police-station.

Veterinary Dispensaries.	Jurisdiction.
(1) Chakia	Pipra, Madhuban, Kesaria police-stations.
(2) Areraj	Gobindganj, Hansidih and Sugauli police-stations.
(3) Dhaka	Dhaka, Patahi and Motihari Muffasil police-stations.

Veterinary Dispensaries.	Jurisdiction.
(4) Raxaul	Raxaul, Adapur and Ghorasahan police-stations.
(5) Bettiah	Bettiah. Nautan, Chainpatia, Lauria, Jogapatty and Majhowalia police-stations.
(6) Narkatiaganj ..	Shikarpur, Sikta, Ramnagar and Mainatanr police-stations.

Besides there was one more dispensary in Madhubani under Dhanha police-station run by the local bodies.

In all the hospitals there are arrangements for indoor and out-door patients whereas in the dispensaries, there are arrangements for out-door patients only.

A district branch of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was formed in the district in the late thirties of the present century. This was constituted for detection and prevention of cruelty to animals. This society prevents mainly, using of lame, diseased, etc., animals, *phooka* (blowing of air through the animal's genitals before milking), flaying goats, etc., alive.

Cattle Fairs.

Several cattle fairs are held annually in the district, but three are important, namely, Bettiah, Madhuban and Rajpur cattle fairs. The Bettiah cattle fair is the biggest in the district. These cattle fairs are held during Durga Puja and generally last for 10 to 15 days. Domesticated animals are brought for sale in these fairs. At these fairs sometimes exhibition is also organised by the Agriculture and Veterinary Departments. In the Bettiah cattle fair in 1955-56, 30,000 cattle were brought, out of which 28,020 were sold out during the period of that fair. In 1956-57, at the same fair 20,540 cattle were brought out of which 4,011 heads were sold. In 1957-58, 38,313 heads of cattle were present in the fair held at Bettiah and out of which 16,309 heads were sold. These figures suggest that the fair is very important as a cattle fair. The other important cattle fair which is held regularly at Rajpur (Chakia) where in 1953-54, 15,000 bovine stock were present, out of which 3,167 were sold. In 1955-56, at the Rajpur fair 15,832 cattle heads were brought, out of which 10,150 heads were sold. In Madhuban cattle fair held in 1953-54, 4,200 cattle were brought, out of which 3,150 were sold. The cattle fair held in 1953-54 at Kesariya assembled 6,050 cattle heads out of which 3,500 were sold. From these comparative figures Bettiah fair appears to be the biggest of all.

Pasturage.

Pasturage now in this district is about 500 square miles. This being considered inadequate, herds of cattle are taken for grazing to Jitpur in Nepal territory. Animals are taken to this place for grazing in the spring season and are brought back as soon as monsoon breaks out. For this the land owner charges some fee. There are no particular big areas exclusively meant for fodder crops, such as *berseem,* etc. Small plots are utilised by big farmers for growing *janera* and other kinds of fodder for their cattle.

Bone, Horn and Hide Business.

Business in these articles is exclusively carried by the Muslim community. Hides are processed in the godown with salt, *khari,* etc., and are exported to Calcutta. Besides, bones and horns are also collected by the local merchants through Chamars and are exported outside. It is said that on the average a business of about Rs. 2,00,000 is annually done in these articles in the district. Champaran district is famous for kid hide which is very popular abroad.

Milk and Milk Produce.

It has already been mentioned that according to the livestock census of 1951 there were 30,792 cows and 20,955 she-buffaloes in milk. These figures were 98,261 and 62,430, respectively, in 1956. According to the livestock census of 1951 the total cow's milk produced in the district in 1951 was 6,630.9 maunds and that of she-buffaloes 11,252 maunds while in 1955-56, according to the 1956 Census of Livestock, cow's milk totalled 23,27,448 maunds and she-buffaloes, 18,92,960 maunds.

The 1958 Report on the livestock census, however, mentions about dairy farms at Bettiah Estate Dairy Farm, Bettiah, and Motihari Jail Dairy Farm, Champaran, where we can expect that some amount of milk products are manufactured. There is no dairy farm worth mentioning in the district. However, there are several *goshalas* according to the Livestock Census Report published in 1958, in the following places, viz., (1) Adarshah Hindu Gomandir, Bagaha, (2) Shri Pinjrapole Goshala, Bettiah, (3) Chanpatia, (4) Motihari, (5) Narkatiaganj, (6) Ramgarhwa, (7) Mehsi, (8) Madhuban, (9) Chakia, (10) Sugauli and (11) Raxaul, P. O. Raxaul Bazar, in the district but in none of these *goshalas* any kind of milk product is manufactured. As a matter of fact all the milk produced in the district is consumed in its original shape or turned into curd and consumed. In some of the villages small machines, kept by the private individuals for extracting cream from milk are seen and cream is one of the two milk products of some importance in the district, *ghee* being the other important milk product. *Ghee* is prepared from either milk or cheese by the house-wives. There is no data to show the actual quantity of cheese and *ghee* produced in the district.

Poultry Farming.

The district has a good population of Mohammadans, Tharus and persons of scheduled castes. All these sections of people are fond of poultry farming. But the birds kept by them are mostly of local breed and smaller in size, although they lay bigger eggs than their counterpart in South Bihar owing to the dampness of the climate.

The Report on the Livestock Census in Bihar in 1956, published in 1958, gives a comparative figure of the number of poultry available in the district in 1951 and the number of poultry available just before and after the reorganisation of the State of Bihar in 1956. In 1951 Champaran had a poultry population of 1,45,139 which swelled to 2,72,262 during 1956, thus showing a variation of 87.6 per cent between the two figures. In 1951 there were 1,35,547 fowls and 9,592 ducks in Champaran as against 1,99,462 fowls and 9,199 ducks in 1956. While the number of fowls increased distinctly in the case of fowls, ducks showed a slight fall.

With the opening of National Extension Service Blocks in the district, an attempt has been made to improve the breed of birds in the district. In four such centres, namely, Motihari, Gaunaha, Turkaulia and Ramnagar, Poultry Extension Centre has been started since 1957 with some birds of Rohde Island Red variety to upgrade the local variety which lays lesser number of eggs of comparatively smaller size. The poultry extension centre was started at Turkaulia on the 20th August with 90 hens and 10 cocks. In addition to this, 98 birds have been distributed to the farmers at Chand Saraya and Baltharwa. The total production of the farm up to the month of November, 1958, is 3,618 eggs in which 1,658 eggs have been for table and 1,246 for hatching purposes. The farmers produced only 168 eggs in which 59 were used in hatching and the rest for table. At the present, the strength of the poultry extension centre, Turkaulia is only 68 and that of the farmers is 89. Thirty-two birds at poultry extension centre at Turkaulia and 9 birds at Chand Saraya died from general diseases and from other accidents.

After the Community Development Block was located at Bagaha, one poultry centre was started on the 16th August 1957, with a capacity of 100 birds of New Hempshire breed. Since the start of the centre, hatching eggs have been supplied to Tharus and Dhangars. Another such centre was started at a village Domwalia. The breeders of this village have been supplied with birds on subsidised rates. The breeders as well as the general people are always given technical and monetary help, e.g., training of breeders or free supply of wire netting. To make the industry more popular four persons have been sanctioned loan under the State Aid to Industries Act and five persons by the Welfare Department for the benefit of the backward people. Only from the review of the working of the poultry centres at these two blocks out of several others it appears that a serious effort is being made to train the people in having better qualities of birds.

Apart from the local demand of eggs and chickens for consumption they have a heavy demand in South Bihar, specially in Patna.

FISHERY.

This district has quite a large number of rivers, lakes, marshes, ponds and tanks. But the fish produced in these water reservoirs is not a major item of trade. There is practically no export of fish from any of the markets beyond the district. Even the daily market for Bettiah, which is considered to be the biggest market within the district, does not attract more than 11 maunds of fish a day. Whatever fish is produced is locally consumed through the nearest market.

In this district there are two main markets for fish supply, viz., one at Bettiah and the other at Motihari. For Bettiah market the sources of supply are Halsarai lake, Majharia lake and Majhaulia lake, Nawtan *chaur* and local ponds. These sources are located within an area ranging between 1½ and 13 miles of distance from Bettiah.

The supply for the market at Motihari comes from the rivers Dhanawati and Sikrahana and local tank and lake. They all come from within the radius of 3 miles from the town of Motihari. This market receives a daily average of 9 maunds of fish from these sources.

The common species found in the district are carps: (1) Rohu, (2) Catla, (3) Naini and (4) Calvasu; Cate fish: (1) Boari, (2) Tengra, (3) Silonal, (4) Bangas and (5) Bachwa; Murels: (1) Garai, (2) Sawra and (3) Chenga; Feather back: (1) Moi and (2) Chitla; Seasonal fish: (1) Hilsa and (2) Gorarah—these two varieties are not available in this district since last few seasons. There are other miscellaneous fish which are available in the district, viz., (1) Pothia, (2) Chelwa, (3) Bami, (4) Gaineha and (5) Chingri. Muhseer which is mentioned in the Old Gazetteer of this district seems to have become extinct.

The main reason for this low output of fish is that the lakes, marshes, ponds and tanks do not get any fry through inundation. They are usually low but with high embankments and the flood water of the river does not reach them. The marshes and ponds are shallow lagoons with deep pits which render fishing difficult. The Earthquake of 1934 has raised the level of the lakes and marshes. The natural productivity of the fish population is definitely low and in order to increase the output of fish there must be induction of fry.

The fishermen as a class have a very poor level of living and it is only recently that some co-operative unions of fishermen have been set up.

The Fishery Section of the State has started functioning in Champaran since 1945 only. The lot of the fishermen, who are scattered all over the district cannot be said to have improved much and their capital still consists of the traditional net, often knit by themselves.

This Section has not yet been able to touch the core of the problem. The Section, however, distributes fish fry and gives subsidy to tank owners and takes other ameliorative measures to improve the condition of the fishermen.

From the 31st March, 1952 to the 31st March, 1956 the fisheries section was under the Agricultural Department. From the 1st April 1956 the fisheries section has completely been integrated with the general administrative and extension organisation of the Agricultural Department. The two Five-Year Plans envisaged something for the development of fisheries also. These plans aimed at developing the fisheries resources of the district through intensive collection and distribution of fishery, by giving subsidy to tank owners for the improvement of their tanks for pisciculture, by participating in exhibition and fairs for making propaganda for the development of fisheries, by supplying country and motor boats to fishermen, organising night school for fishermen and surveying their colonies. They also aimed at the development of exploitation of Government reservoir, tanks and ponds and the improvement of storage and transport of fish to markets. Since 1945-46 this section has been distributing many maunds of fisheries and fish seeds through the agencies every year. In 1946-47, 18,500 fisheries were distributed as against 4,15,000 in 1947-48, 5,30,000 in 1948-49, 97,500 in 1949-50, 5,78,000 in 1950-51, 2,84,000 in 1951-52, 2,80,000 in 1952-53, 3,51,000 in 1953-54, 1,51,500 in 1954-55 and 1,67,000 in 1955-56, respectively. In 1956-57 some 1,76,333 fish seeds were distributed as against 5,59,666 in 1957-58. Subsidy has been given so far in 1949-50—Rs. 250. This scheme was dropped in 1951-52. In the field of research, as directed by the Research Committee 12 manurial and 2 paddy-*cum*-fish culture experiments were conducted in the year 1955-56. Several demonstrations have been held in different blocks since the beginning of the Second Five-Year Plan.

IRRIGATION.

In the northern and eastern part of the district *bangar* soil predominates. In these tracts of the district winter paddy is chiefly grown. This region is particularly suited to irrigation. The canal system that operates in the district fall in this area. About two and a half decades back Mr. Swanzy in his revised District Gazetteer (1932), published in 1938, observed " it may be said that with the irrigation facilities now existing the district is practically immune from famine on an extensive scale ". Since then, chiefly during recent years, the district has also been provided with some other kinds of irrigational facilities. In spite of cultivators' indifference towards irrigational facilities many irrigation schemes have been executed in the district either totally at the Government's instance or with the joint efforts of the cultivators and the State. A brief account of the different kinds of irrigational facilities obtaining in the district is given below.

Canals.—There are three big canals in the district, viz., Dhaka canal, Tiur canal and Tribeni canal. Besides there is another canal system to be established in the district which is in project stage and is known as Gandak project. These canals, electric tube-wells and any other irrigational schemes which cost more than Rs. 30,000 come under the major irrigation system.

Dhaka Canal.—In the revised District Gazetteer of 1932 it has been mentioned : "The Dhaka canal runs south and west from the vicinity of Bairgania station and was designed to carry off the water of the Lal Bakaya river to the south of Dhaka thana. The construction of the canal was begun in 1896-97 as a famine relief work and was completed in March, 1908. The area irrigated by the canal is approximately 16,000 acres. It works extremely well and ensures good crops".

For long-term lease for *khariff* crops only a cultivator is charged rupees six per acre annually, whereas the charge for short-term lease is rupees eight. The average revenue (on the basis of the figures for 1952-53 to 1956-57) derived from this canal is Rs. 90,896 per annum in the form of water rent receipt. A table is given below to show the area irrigated by this canal from 1952-53 to 1956-57 :—

(*In acres.*)

Crop season.		Lease.	1952-53.	1953-54.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.
Khariff	..	Long-term lease	12,071	13,128	12,971	12,140	13,168
Ditto	..	Short-term lease	2,682	1,250	1,863	1,981	1,421
		Total ..	14,753	14,378	14,834	14,124	14,589

From the abovementioned figures the average area irrigated annually from this canal comes to 14,536 acres.

Tiur Canal.—The Tiur canal is smaller than the Dhaka canal. In the revised District Gazetteer published in 1938 (written in 1932) it has been mentioned : "The Tiur canal takes off from the Tiur river and runs almost due south from Chauradano to Lakhaura. This canal, which was completed in 1879, was constructed mainly at the expense of Rai Bahadur Durga Prasad Singh, the Madhuban Babu and of other zamindars. The total cost was Rs. 72,926 of which Government paid Rs. 6,881. It was taken over by Government in 1886 and has been maintained since that time from provincial revenue. It traverses what is perhaps the most fertile tract in the district and is a great success. The area irrigated is approximately 6,000 acres".

The charge of irrigating an acre of *khariff* crop to the cultivator is the same as in the case of Dhaka canal. However, in this canal lease is given out for hot weather crops also and its cost to the cultivator comes to Rs. 10 per acre. The average revenue (on the basis of figures for 1952-53 to 1956-57) derived from it is Rs. 28,666 per annum in the shape of water rent receipt. A table is given below to show the area irrigated by this canal from 1952-53 to 1956-57 :—

Crop season.	Lease.	1952-53.	1953-54.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.
Khariff ..	Long-term lease	2.350	2.358	2.541	2.614	2,627
	Short-term lease	504	320	559	459	340
Hot weather	.. ..	1,692	967	850	753	835
	Total ..	4,546	3,645	3,950	3,826	3,802

From the abovementioned figures the average area annually irrigated from this canal comes to 3,953 acres.

Tribeni Canal.—The Tribeni canal flows along the northern boundary of the district for a total length of 93 miles. It takes off from the Gandak through its head-sluice at Bhainsalotan near the village Tribeni from which it derives its name. The canal was first opened for irrigation at a cost of Rs. 75 lakhs on the 7th June 1909 as a famine relief measure after the Great Bengal Famine of 1896. Accordingly the canal was classified as an unproductive scheme. Originally it was only 61 miles and 1.650 feet long with a capacity to carry a maximum discharge of 1,708 cusecs to irrigate 85,400 acres of irrigable land out of its total gross command area of 427 square miles or 2.73 lakh acres. But the masonry structures over it were designed for a maximum capacity of 2,720 cusecs of head discharge. This was done with a view to bring under irrigation more areas with the extension of the canal in future and when the demand for irrigation would increase.

With the passage of time, the demand for irrigation increased and subsequently extension and expansion programme of the canal had to be taken up. The first phase of the expansion of the Tribeni canal costing about Rs. 29 lakhs was done in 1950. This consisted of extension of distributaries and desilting of main canal with a view to provide better distribution of the available discharge water of the canal and to irrigate more areas within its existing command. Under phase two of the expansion scheme some more extension of distributaries and their branches, namely, Belwa-Sathi and Shikarpur distributaries, are to be done for the same purpose as under phase one. Extension of Belwa-Sathi distributaries is under execution (1958) at an estimated cost of Rs. 2,71,018. The Shikarpur distributary is also to be taken up.

Under the Tribeni Canal Extension Scheme amounting to Rs. 1.13 crores the main canal has been extended to a length of 32 miles with a number of distributaries and a further area of 211 square miles have been brought under the command of the canal. An irrigable area of 54,000 acres is expected to get water under the scheme which is expected to be completed by the end of 1958.

The entire Tribeni canal runs across the natural drainage of the country which is from north to south, and necessitate the execution of a number of cross drainage works. This has increased the maintenance cost of land. The left bank of the canal is often breached during high floods and irrigation stops until the breached bank is restored at a considerable cost. In some years accumulation of boulders and silt in the leading channel, connecting the river with the head-sluice of the canal, has rendered it difficult to obtain sufficient water when irrigation is most needed, while in other years irrigation has been made difficult owing to siltation of the main canal and the distributaries. Apart from these the masonry structures in the upper reaches are damaged badly every year and cost much in the annual repair and maintenance. They are made of lime and mortar and are now 50 years old. Due to all this the annual cost of maintenance of the canal is increasing gradually. In 1957-58 about Rs. 3.5 lakhs had to be spent for the maintenance and repair of the old 61 miles length of canal.

At times some unauthorised irrigation is done by putting bunds across some of the natural drainage channel and this leads to administrative complications. This continues to be so since a pretty long time.

Inspite of the above-noted difficulties, the Tribeni canal has proved to be of great value to the area concerned, specially during the years of drought. The extension of the canal has increased the total area under its command to 638 square miles or 4.08 lakh acres. With the completion of all extension and expansion schemes the canal is expected to irrigate an area of about 2 lakh acres.

The rates of irrigation per acre now are : seasonal—Rs. 8; long lease—Rs. 6; and hot weather—Rs. 4. There is also a penal rate for unauthorised irrigation at the rate of Rs. 15 per acre.

A table is given below showing the area irrigated for long lease and short lease during 1953-54 to 1957-58 under *khariff* season and hot weather season :—

Khariff.

(In acres.)

——	1953-54.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
Ramnagar S. I. ..	56,471	58,146	58,217	59,535	62,573
Subdivision L. I. ..	5,830	4,365	3,765	2,615	
Maniari S. I. ..	40,780	37,631	43,427	44,336	74,284
Subdivision L. I. ..	17,035	20,568	13,772	20,000	
Total ..	1,20,116	1,20,710	1,19,181	1,26,486	1,36,857

Hot weather.

(In acres.)

———	1953-54.	1954-55.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
Ramnagar subdivision.	7,037	5,701	2,341	3,300	6,091
Maniari subdivision	5,743	5,404	3,844	6,805	10,186
Total ..	12,780	11,105	6,185	10,105	16,277

Electric Tube-well.

In the year 1952-53 a power station was constructed at Chakia to supply power for land irrigation and other purposes. Since then 83 electric pumps have been sunk in the district up to 1955-56 at the cost of about Rs. 70,000 each. Each pump is to discharge a maximum of 1.5 cusecs or 33,000 gallons per hour. The gross area commanded by these pumps comes to about 33,200 acres at the rate of 400 acres per tube-well site and the culturable area comes to 20,750 acres at the rate of 280 acres per tube-well site. The total area proposed to be irrigated by these tube-wells comes to 3,370.27 acres. These tube-wells have not yet (1956-57) gone into operation. This scheme is expected to increase agricultural produce considerably in the district. The cost of water from the tube-wells will be much higher than canal water.

Medium Irrigation Schemes.

The irrigation schemes which cost above Rs. 5,000 and below Rs. 30,000 come under the definition of medium irrigation schemes. These schemes consist of construction of sluice gates over rivers, repair to bunds and pynes, etc. The progress made under this scheme from 1950-51 to March, 1957, in the district may be mentioned as under :—

Number of schemes completed	14
Area benefited (acres)	25,522
Cost involved (rupees)	3,50,041
Population covered	26,000

Minor Irrigation Schemes.

All the construction and repairs of pynes, *ahars*, bunds, excavation or repairs of tanks, etc., costing below Rs. 5,000 comes under the definition of minor irrigation schemes. The construction of wells, installation of tube-wells, open borings with or without strainers are also included under this category. Execution of such schemes under the joint cost contribution by the State and the cultivators, the share being 50 per cent to either party, is becoming very popular in the district. The progress made under this scheme from 1950-51 up to March, 1957, may be summarised as follows :—

Kinds of scheme.	No. of schemes completed.	Approximate cost involved (in rupees).	Approximate area covered (in acres).	Approximate population covered.
1. Repairs of *pynes, ahars* and bunds.	202	3,66,485	14,500	15,000
2. Surface percolation wells	549	1,93,427	3,294	2,745
3. Open boring	53	40,954	584	600
4. Tube-wells	28	Not available	2,800	Not available.
5. Pumping sets ..	161	94,000	16,100	8,000
6. Rahats	20	5,000	120	100

It is estimated that the execution of these schemes has increased the yield at the rate of 2 maunds per acre in an area of approximately 30,600 acres and at the rate of 5 maunds per acre in an area of 6,798 acres.

Statement showing the area irrigated by different sources in Champaran from 1952-53 *to* 1955-56 (*in thousands of acres*).

Year.		Government Canals.	Private Canals.	Tanks.	Wells.	Other sources.	Total area irrigated.
(A) 1952-53	..	151	150	Negligible	Negligible	4	306
(B) 1953-54	..	148	94	2	2	19	265
1954-55	..	205	35	2	2	11	255
1955-56	..	82	63	Nil	Nil	6	153
(C) 1956-57	..	131	Negligible	Negligible	Negligible	29	160

The most disturbing fact that becomes apparent after a look at the statement is that the area under irrigation has been showing a consistently downward trend so much so that while 3,06,000 acres were irrigated in 1952-53 as against 1,53,000 acres in 1955-56 thus reducing exactly by 50 per cent from the previous figure. There is forwarded one reason that an even and sufficiently distributed rainfall neutralises the necessity of more and more of artificial irrigational facilities. But, taking even that as valid it is difficult to accept the premise that in all these years there have been a consistently even and well distributed rainfall every year in the district. On the contrary, there have been constant droughts since 1953-54 and reached

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(A) Vide *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book*, p. 22, 1953.

(B) Vide *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book*, pp. 28-29, 1955.

(C) Vide *Hand-Book of Reorganised Bihar*, p. 18, 1956.

an acute stage in 1955-56. However, it will be seen that Government canals supply the largest area with water while private canals occupy next position. Both tanks and wells irrigated 4,000 acres each during the year 1953—55. Other sources irrigated more area than either tanks or wells do. In 1954-55, 2,05,000 acres of area were irrigated by Government canals as against 82,000 acres in the next year. Private canals irrigated 1,50,000 acres of area in 1952-53 as against only 35,000 acres in 1954-55. Though, fluctuating a bit on either side the acreage under different sources shows the disturbing trend of going down fast as the years advance. With our knowledge of intensive activities undertaken by the Government under the two plans to offer better and wider facilities of irrigation to protect from the vagaries of monsoon the above figures appear confusing and, therefore, unacceptable without a proper investigation.*

SEEDS.

The quality of seeds also counts considerably in stepping up yield. In respect of some of the crops, it has been estimated better varieties of seeds can enhance the output to the extent of 15 to 20 per cent.

It is comparatively a recent innovation to step up production by using better seeds. The cultivators use the same type of seeds which they have been growing for decades. They generally reserve certain portion of their field produce and use that as seed. But as they are technically not considered cent per cent pure and are understood to be of inferior quality, they do not give as much yield as is expected from a better variety of seeds. During recent times several improved varieties of seeds have been obtained either by selection on hybridisation by the Department of Agriculture, Bihar on its research stations in the State or imported from outside research stations in India. Several imported seeds have been given trial under local conditions and have been recommended to replace local seeds. An account of local as well as imported seeds is given below in a tabular form :—

Name of the crop.	Name of the local varieties of seeds.	Name of the imported varieties of seeds.	Remarks.
Paddy ..	*Sathi, Boro, Katika, Bansmati, Deosar, Kalamdan, Baharani, Badsah bhog, Sengara, Jessariya, Barhmabhoshi, Saro, Manasara, Bhanisalote, Sona* and *Sathika.*	B. R. 1 (Bihar Kolaba), B. R. 3 (115 B.K.), B. R. 4 (141 B.K.), B. R. 6 (88 B.K.), B. R. 7 (36 B.K.), B. R. 8 (198-2A), B. R. 9 (818-3A), B. R. (B. R.-13), B. R. 14, N. P. 24 and N. P. 31.	Out of the seeds mentioned in the previous two cols. B. R. 3 (B. K. 115), B. R. 8 (498-2A), B. R. 9 (818-3A), B. R. 14, *Sona* and *Sathika* are popularly grown in the district.

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* Such confusing figures for irrigated areas will be found for other districts as well. The matter was reported to and is under investigation of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics. (P. C. R. C.)

Name of the crop.	Name of the local varieties of seeds.	Name of the imported varieties of seeds.	Remarks.
Wheat ..	*Dawadia* (white grained), *Dudhia* (soft white grained) and *Lalka* (red grained).	N. P. 755, N. P. 758, N. P. 761, N. P. 798, N. P. 799, N. P. 52 and B. R. 319.	N. P. 761 is the most popular variety since it is early maturing and can be grown after early paddy. N. P. 755 and N. P. 758 come next due to their high yield, drought and rust resistance. These come amongst the mid-season wheat.
Barley ..	*Desi* barley ..	B. R. 21, B. R. 22, B. R. 24 and N. P. 21, N. P. 13 and N. P. 24.	
Maize ..	*Baraki Makai*, *Tinpakhia*.	*Jaunpur*, *Kalimpong* and *Tinpakhia*.	*Jaunpur* is most popularly grown in the district.
Rahar ..	Red and black according to colour and *Aghani*, *Maghi*, *Chaiti* according to season.	S. T. 7 and B. R. 65.	B. R. 65 is most popularly grown.
Sugarcane ..	*Rewara*, *Lalgainra*, *Bhuaria* and *Pansahi*.	C. O. 419, C. O. 513, C. O. 453, C. O. 313, B. O. 10, B. O. 3, B. O. 14, B. O. 19, B. O. 21, B. O. 22, B. O. 28, B. O. 29, B. O. 31 and B. O. 35.	B. O. 10, B. O. 3, B. O. 21, C. O. 419, C. O. 313 and C. O. 513 are the most popular cane grown in the district. Local varieties have practically gone out of cultivation in this district.
Gram ..	..	N. P. 58 and N. P. 53.	N. P. 58 is most popularly grown in the district.
Peas ..	..	*Sepaya* A and N. P. 29.	*Sepaya* A is grown popularly in the district.
Moong ..	..	Type-1 ..	There is only one variety and it is grown exclusively in the district.
Jute ..	..	Corchorus capsularies and C. Olitorius.	Corchorus capsularis is most popularly grown in the district.

It is said that the introduction of improved varieties on a wider scale has been rather slow in the district due to inadequacy of seed supply. Seed Multiplication Farms have been set up at district, subdivision and anchal-*cum*-block levels to supply improved seeds to the entire district in order to step up production during the Second Five-Year Plan. These farms are to be the " foundation seed farms " of 100, 50 and 25 acres, respectively. Block farms have a programme to spread pure and improved seeds of most of the crops within its area within a period of three to four years by flowing the " foundation " seeds produced in its farm in three stages through registered growers. It is calculated to increase the production of the important crops like wheat, paddy, sugarcane, pulses, etc.

MANURES AND FERTILISERS.

Compared to the last 30 years the consumption of manures and fertilisers has increased considerably. Not only cowdung and compost are used but farmers have been taking more to the use of oilcakes and chemical fertilisers to increase the crop production. Nightsoil or ponderatte which was unheard of thirty years ago or people did not use it due to their prejudices are now being used in greater quantities. It is so much in demand that municipalities are not able to cope with it. Green manuring, which was formerly done with *sanai* (Crotolaria juncea), is now supplemented by *moong* (Phaseolus radiatus), *urid* (Phaseolus mungo) and *meth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius) in about 15 thousand acres in the district. Among all kinds of manuring practices green manuring has been found to be the cheapest. Even the chemical fertilisers show better results only in those fields where organic matter is sufficiently high due to green manuring.

At present among the nitrogenous fertilisers ammonium sulphate is used in the district on an average to the tune of 1,378 tons (on the basis of consumption from 1953 to 1956) and single superphosphate to the tune of 2,042 tons. Bonemeal is also used but to a very limited extent. A table is given below showing the consumption of fertilisers from 1953 to 1956 :—

Name of fertilisers.	Consumption in tons yearwise.			
	1953.	1954.	1955.	1956.
Ammonium sulphate ..	979	1,250	1,824	1,460
Superphosphate	613	1,423	3,679	2,453.65
Bonemeal	31	21	16	..

(Figures for this table have been supplied by Bihar State Co-operative Bank, Credit Agricole Section.)

Besides the abovementioned figures, certain special fertiliser mixtures are directly imported by the sugar factories and distributed amongst the cane-growers through the Cane-growers' Co-operative Societies on credit. The quantity so distributed is understood to be considerably large, although no figures for them are obtainable. This understanding is based on a spot enquiry in which it was found that all the cane-growers had received on credit some fertiliser mixture from the respective cane factories to which they regularly supplied their cane.

The manurial schedule commonly recommended to the cultivators in this district prescribes the use of 2½ maunds of ammonium sulphate, 3 maunds and 5 seers of single superphosphate for cereal crops in the irrigated area and the dose of ammonium sulphate is reduced by 50 per cent in an unirrigated area. One maund and 22½ seers of single superphosphate is recommended for use in leguminous crops.

Most of the farmers do not know how to use fertilisers. Earlier they were completely ignorant of it. But now they are being educated in the technique of using fertilisers by various agencies, Governmental and non-Governmental.

Diseases and Pests.

Various kinds of diseases and pests have been found to be prevalent in the district for different crops. A brief description of some of them is given below :—

(*i*) *Rice hispa* (Hispa armigera).—This is a kind of pest which affects paddy plants. The beetle feeds on the leaves. The immature stages also feed on the plant leaves making blisters or blotches and giving to the crop a scorched appearance. Dusting 5 per cent B. H. C. is generally recommended as a remedy.

(*ii*) *Gundhi bug* (Leptocorisa varicornis F.).—This is an elongated bug commonly found on grasses and cereals. This feeds by sucking sap but in particular milk juice of the developing grain of paddy. This makes the ears fail and turn white. Dusting with gammexane 0.025 at the rate of 20 to 25 lbs. per acre is recommended.

(*iii*) *Grasshoppers* (Hieroglyphus spp.).—This is also a kind of pest found in the cereals. This feeds on foliage and cuts ears' heads. The period between September and November is the main time for its attack. Dusting B. H. C. for early stages of the pest and 10 per cent for more advanced stages are recommended.

(*iv*) *Blast* (Piricularia Oryzæ).—This is a disease which attacks rice plants in all the stages of growth. It manifests itself in the form of spindle shaped brown spots with grey centre. These spots increase in dimension gradually and in cases of severe attacks the plant withers away and present blasted appearance. In the stem nodes are blockened and break at the joint. The grains remain unfilled and become chaffy. It is controlled by spraying with bordeaux mixture, ,disease resisting paddy varieties and balanced used of nitrogenous fertilisers.

(*v*) *Leaf spot* (Helminthosporium Oryzæ).—In this disease spots on leaves first appear as minute brown specks and later develop up to ½ cm. long. They are elliptical and are darker in the centre than in case of blast. In severe cases ears fail to emerge, seeds become shrivelled and discoloured. The primary infection of the disease can be controlled by treating with agrosan GN or ceresan at the rate of 1 part of the disinfectant for 400 to 500 parts of seed.

(*vi*) *False smut* (Ustilaginoidea virens).—In this disease individual grain grows abnormally large at times, may be surrounded at first by a bright orange or alive green skin and then become balls several times more in diameter of the normal length of the grain, covered with green black coating of powder.

(*vii*) *Red rot* (Coltetrichum felcatum).—This is a disease which affects sugarcane. In the affected plants leaves droop and dry up along the margin. The badly affected canes shrink and black specks appear on its rind which are conspicuous near the nodes. On splitting a cane broad red blotches with transversely elongated white centres are noticed. A sour smell is also noticed. In the middle of leaves, characteristic lesions occur. Rooting out the affected plants, selection of setts from diseased free clumps and growing of resistant varieties are recommended to get rid of the disease. In the past this disease invaded this district in an epidemic form.

(*viii*) *Mango hopper* (Idiocerus spp.).—This affects mango fruit only. When the trees bear flower spikes thousands of hoppers appear and suck up the juce from the shoots and flower stalks. This drainage of sap causes flowers and buds to dry up and wither away. The hoppers exude a sweet fluid which makes the appearance of the affected tree black. Spraying of D. D. T. and guesard 550 during the flowering time, before the buds open, is recommended.

Some other kinds of diseases like stem rust or black rust (Puecinia graministritici), loose smut (Ustilago tritici), stem borer (Argyria sticticraspis), etc., have also been found prevalent in the district.

Besides pests and diseases, wild animals like jackals, boars, monkeys, blue cows, etc., domestic animals like cows, buffaloes, goats, etc., and birds like crows, wood-peckers, parrots, etc., also cause damage to the crop. Although the extent of damage caused to the crop due to combined effects of various pests and diseases and animals and birds' depredations has not been ascertained but it is estimated that a total prevention of all these would add no less than 10 to 15 per cent to the total output in the district.

It appears necessary to mention here that there has not been any widespread outbreak of pests and diseases in this district in the recent past. There is a plant protection unit under the Agriculture Department in the district. Some of the effective demonstrations conducted in the district have convinced a good section of the cultivators about the effectiveness of pesticides like gammexane (BHC), guessarol, geigy 33A (D. D. T. product), etc., and they are gradually taking to these things to protect their plants against pests and diseases.

CROP ROTATION.

The sequence of growing crops in succession is called crop rotation and a scientific rotation of crops is essential to maintain the fertility of the soil. Crop rotation may be affected by growing one crop after the other or by growing two or more crops at a time in the same field. In rotation principles growing of legume crops and green manuring through legume crops are considered desirable. The rotations may be of one year, two years and three years. Some important crop rotations and mixtures observed in this district are given below in a tabular form :—

(1) One year's rotation—

Kharif.	*Rabi.*
(*i*) Paddy ..	Paira.
(*ii*) Paddy ..	Peas or gram or oats.
(*iii*) Jute and paddy ..	Wheat or barley.
(*iv*) *Bhadai* paddy followed by early *aman* paddy.	Onion.
(*v*) Paddy ..	Onion or potato.
(*vi*) Maize and turmeric.	Wheat.
(*vii*) *Moong* for seed followed by *moong* for green manuring and this followed by paddy.	Wheat or onion.
(*viii*) Maize and *arhar* ..	*Arhar*.

(2) Two years' rotation—

Kharif.	*Rabi.*
First Year.	
(*i*) Paddy ..	Sugarcane.
(*ii*) Maize ..	Sugarcane.
(*iii*) Green manure ..	Sugarcane.
(*iv*) Green manure ..	Wheat.
Second Year.	
(*i*) Sugarcane ..	Sugarcane.
(*ii*) Sugarcane ..	Sugarcane.
(*iii*) Sugarcane	Sugarcane.
(*iv*) Maize and *arhar* ..	Maize and *arhar*.

(3) Three years' rotation—

Kharif.	*Rabi.*
First Year.	
Green manure	Sugarcane.
Second Year.	
Sugarcane	Sugarcane.
Third Year.	
Paddy	Wheat.

Rotation is followed on all types of soil excepting *chaur* lands where a single crop of paddy is grown as they normally remain submerged under water throughout the year excepting for a few weeks. Sometimes *rabi* crops are also grown in *chaurs,* especially in such *chaurs* which remain out of water for a pretty long time.

MARKETING OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

The bulk of the agricultural produce, chiefly food-crops are consumed by the producers and only a small percentage comes to the market for sale. However, the bulk of the non-food-crops like jute, sugarcane, tobacco, etc., is sold out.

The food-crops are commonly brought by the producers themselves to the primary market. Some village *banias* also do this kind of business. From the primary markets the produce are brought to the secondary market through the agency of grain traders and made over to big *arhatias* who sell them out to retailers and the final consumers purchase them from the retail traders.

The producers are generally weak and they cannot retain their produce to be sold out at a favourable time to fetch a better price. They generally sell out their produce at harvesting time when the price is comparatively low. The middle men or *banias* make huge profits at the cost of producers. There is no warehouse and credit facilities available to the producers. Such facilities would help them a lot in improving their lot.

There are still other difficulties which stand to the way of producers. These difficulties may be said to be the complete absence of the provision for a scientific grading of produce and a standard weight for all the markets. The provisions would mean fair dealing and fair price to the producer. Sometimes even the producers themselves do not care to separate waste materials like stonechips, dust, etc., from their produce.

So far non-food-crops are concerned, sugarcane is generally supplied to sugar factories, jute and tobacco up to the secondary market are dealt with like foodgrains, but from there they are exported outside the district to manufacturing centres.

The important centres of marketing in the district are Narkatiaganj, Chanpatia, Ramnagar, Bagaha, Bettiah, Motihari, Chiraiya, Pakari Sikta, Bhelwa, Raxaul, Adapur, Siswa Basantpur, Sariswan, Chakia and Ghorasahan.

Communication and modes of conveyance are the two props for a quick and easy trade and commerce. The chief difficulty in Champaran district for marketing has been a certain amount of inaccessibility of some of the areas that grow good crops or are rich in forests. The proximity of Nepal *tarai* has been another difficulty. It has already been mentioned elsewhere that the Public Works Department did not have much to do with the roads in this district till 1946-47. It was difficult to reach by road the subdivisional town of Bettiah a few decades back. The District Board did not have proper finance to put up strong culverts and heavy vehicles could only move at considerable damage to the vehicles as well as to the roads.

A certain amount of transport was done through the rivers. Bamboos and timbers used to be floated down from Bagaha right up to Mahendrughat whenever there would be enough water in the rivers. Cargo boat used to ply also. The canal, however, did not offer much facilities for navigation. The Second War brought about a certain change in improving the communications. The soft wood that is plentifully available in this district was fully utilised for making bobbins and put to other uses and a factory was set up at Motihari for manufacturing bobbins which could not be imported from abroad during the Second World War. There was also an enormous drain on *semal* trees for match wood and packing boxes. The jungles were fully tapped and heavy trucks started moving about even with the bad culverts on the roads. The North Bihar Regional Transport Authority was set up in the forties for regulating motor vehicles traffic and started granting permits to the public and private carriers at the teeth of opposition of the District Board. Ultimately the District Board had to yield and started improving their culverts and providing crossing wherever required. The Pubic Works Department took up roads from 1946-47 and a large number of District Board roads were taken over by the Public Works Department. We have now a fair mileage of tarred and macadamised roads in this district, details of which could be found in another chapter.

But this network of roads connects only the main townships and markets but leaves out the primary markets. The primary markets are still suffering from the handicap of bad roads and bullock-carts are the only mode of conveyance for such areas. It will probably take another two or three decades before every village has a road connecting the village up to a main artery and till that is achieved the primary markets are bound to have a certain amount of difficulties in reaching their goods to the wholesale markets. This transport is still done by the bullock-carts or by pack ponies.

The existence of the indigo *kothis* helped the road economy of the interior. The indigo planters were anxious to get the indigo crop from their *raiyats* and they were also in a big number in the District Board. The result was that the indigo *kothis* scattered throughout the district were connected by roads on which bullock-carts and horse-drawn traps could move. The indigo planters also brought in rubber tyred bullock-carts which was a boon to the livestock.

The railways have also been a help for the marketing of goods. Railways have been covered separately in the Communication chapter. Commercial air transport has not yet been attempted. There is a Royal Nepal Air Service which has airports within Nepal but very close to Champaran district. A certain amount of goods are carried by this route. The tiny Nepal railway which has its terminus at Raxaul is rather important as this railway carries a lot of merchandise from India to Nepal and from Nepal to India. The long frontier line with Nepal cannot possibly be guarded and there is no doubt that there is a certain amount of smuggling. Non-duty-paid *ganja* from Nepal is often detected in Champaran district.

Very recently (since 1958) a number of long distance goods services by trucks are regularly running from Calcutta to Muzaffarpur, Motihari and Raxaul and to Kathmandu and getting a good custom. It has yet to be seen if these services will last. A general remark is often made that the drivers of these public carriers drive like devils and drink like fish but they reach the goods all right. The goods transported by this means do not involve a bigger risk for damages than the goods carried by railways. The time lag is definitely very much shorter. Even at Kathmandu it was ascertained that goods booked from Calcutta had arrived perfectly safe at Kathmandu. The facilities offered for ferries are not very good and there are also very little of roadside comforts or amenities for the people engaged in these services. There is no doubt that a compliment is due to them.

It can, however, be safely said that the position of bullock-carts and country boats will not be affected for quite a long time to come. In spite of the emphasis laid on the industries—large, medium and small—for improving the economic life of the people, the bulk of the population will continue to be mainly dependent on agriculture and bullock-carts will have to provide the power for rural transport. It is feared that for two or three decades more village roads will remain unsurfaced and inaccessible to mechanised transport. In the circumstances bullock-carts and country-boats have to continue to provide the principal means of transport from the fields and farms to the villages and to the market places near about.

Agricultural Labour and Wages.

As elsewhere in the State of Bihar agricultural operations are absolutely dependent on manual labour and need a vast array of labourers. There is very little use of tractors. The agriculturist family has the nucleus of the agricultural labourer required for the agricultural land. With the spread of literacy there has been a growing allergy in an agriculturist family to take to ploughing and more and more labourers are required. Ideas of prestige associated with particular castes also act as a bar to do manual labour for cultivation. There is no law to regulate the condition of the agricultural labourers who are, therefore, mobile. This mobility of the agricultural labour population somewhat affects the different operations and particularly the reaping of the crops. The average agricultural labourer is getting more conscious of his rights and the time is almost coming when he will be dictating his terms.

There has been no co-operative farming in the district worth any mention. Agricultural labour consists of males, females and children. Normally operations that require hard manual labour such as ploughing, etc., are done by the males. Lighter operations like broadcasting of seeds, transplantation of paddy, etc., are done by the females and the children. There is a lot of friendly exchange of labour between agricultural families.

Agricultural labour is not always landless although the tendency now is to have more of landless agricultural labourer. The present rate of wages for an adult male labourer is Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 and that of a child or a female labourer at its half. The *District Gazetteer of Champaran,* published in 1932, mentioned that in 1874-75 the daily wages for coolies and agricultural labourers were two and half annas for a man, one and half annas for a woman and one anna for a boy. In 1931 these wages were three to six annas for a man, three annas for a woman and about one and half to two annas for a boy. This will show that there has been a very great increase in the level of wages. The present day labourer out of his daily wages in cash expects some tiffin by way of *chura* and *gur,* etc., in the course of the day. Wages in kind are also paid occasionally and particularly when threshing is done. The quantity allowed is proportionate to the quantity of grain threshed.

Bonded labour or the *kamia* system is now liquidated. Under this system a labourer was tied to a farmer from generation to generation for some loan taken in the past. Very occasionally a *kamia* would be given a very small piece of land for his bare sustenance. Once a *kamia* he could not change his master. This system has been abolished by statutory Act. Champaran had, as mentioned elsewhere, a large number of indigo and sugar plantations. The European planters imported a large number of Adibasi Oraon families from Ranchi district in Chotanagpur to supply a perennial source of good and cheap labour. These Oraons have now become permanent residents of this district and are commonly known as Dhangars. They form excellent labour for agricultural operations. Usually these Dhangar population will be found near about the old indigo or sugar plantation. There is, however, the system of family *halwahas* who are better of than the *kamias*. *Halwahas* are usually given payment in cash or kind or both and also a small piece of land.

With the abolition of zamindari and the possibility of land ceiling being fixed there is no doubt that agricultural labour will change its pattern very soon.

According to the census of 1951 out of the total agricultural population of 23,60,635 the number of agricultural labourer comes to 8,39,378. These labourers are of two types who are locally known as *kamias* and *mazdoors* or in other words fixed labourers and casual labourers, respectively.

The climate of the district is humid and, therefore, the labourers do not have hard working capacity. As the fixed labourers have a sense of security in their employment and as they also get certain special facilities from their employers they take more interest in work than the casual labourers who are migratory in character and get only seasonal employment. Earlier the lot of *kamias* was worser than the casual labourers as they were being treated more or less like slaves but now this institution has disappeared. The casual labourers on the average get employment for 90 to 100 days in a year and for the rest of the period they have to sit more or less idle.

Kamias get one and half maunds of paddy in a month for their own use and in addition to this they get 8 maunds of paddy annually for the use of their family members. Besides, they get 8 to 10 *kathas* of *halwahi* or *batai* lands. They also get loan from the employers either in cash or kind, whenever they need it, specially on ceremonial occasions. The daily wages of *mazdoors* for ploughing, weeding, hoeing, transplanting, etc., vary from two to three seers of standard weight of foodgrains and a quarter to half seer of *sattu* or *bhuja* for breakfast. The cash value of the grain comes to annas twelve to one rupee per day. For harvesting purposes the system of wage payment is one-eighth number of harvested bundles of crops when the particular labourer agrees to do threshing and winnowing, also, otherwise for harvesting only he gets one-sixteenth number of bundles of crops harvested. The wages for harvesting and stripping sugarcane vary from one to one and half annas per maund. The wages in the Tharuhat area are higher than the south eastern part of the district. Women and children are also employed for transplantation and weeding operations. The wages of female labourers are equivalent to that of males while children get only fifty per cent of the wages given to adults. As there are no statutory laws binding on the agricultural labourers they are mobile and it is for the agriculturist now to keep them in good humour. This is a very opposite picture to what the circumstances were a few decades back when bonded or tied labour was the general system.

The wages of skilled labourers, such as, carpenters, blacksmiths, etc., have gone up as compared with the wages paid to them 25 years back, by about five to six hundred per cent and that of unskilled labourers by about four hundred per cent. The wages of a skilled labourer in 1930-31 was six to eight annas and that of unskilled labourer three to four annas per day whereas at present they get Rs. 2 to Rs. 2-8-0 and 12 annas to one rupee per day, respectively.

Minimum Wages Act has already been introduced in the State but has not yet been properly implemented in this district. It is thought that the implementation of this Act in this district would bring some improvement in the economic condition of the labourers.

AGRICULTURAL FINANCE.

State advances to cultivators have been a regular feature in the agricultural economy in this district and the State since at least the days of Todarmal's revenue system introduced in 1582 A. D. The Revenue Officer was enjoined to assist the needy husbandmen with loans of money and receive payment at convenient periods. Todarmal had copied the plan commenced by Shershah.

This arrangement appears to have been continued and was a legacy in the early days of British administration. Taccavi loans were common during the days of Zaffir Khan, Nazim of Bengal, from 1713 to 1736. In 1767 two years after Clive had obtained for the Company the Dewani of Bengal (State of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa) we find the first British Government of Bengal fully recognising the system of advances to the agriculturists.

When Shore was looking into the rights of Zamindars and Talukdars in 1788 he made a specific enquiry regarding such advances. He had put series of questions to Ghulam Hussain Khan, author of the *Shair-ul-Mutakhrin,* and to the Roy Royan and was told that it was incumbent on the ruler to advance taccavi to the raiyats. This idea was incorporated in Regulation II of 1793. By sections 23 and 24 of this Regulation the Board was authorised " to grant advances of taccavi to proprietors or farmers of land where it shall appear essentially necessary, in proportion not exceeding five per cent of the revenue payable from the lands, to Government, reporting all such instances to the Governor-General in Council ". For larger sums the Governor-General's sanction had to be obtained. The interest to be taken was one per cent per month and the Collectors were forbidden to advance taccavi without the express sanction of the Board.

Since then the advances by the State as a policy has been continued although occasionally, the records show that they were not extensively given. In 1815 the Collectors of the ceded and conquered province had to report on the prevailing rent system. The replies given by the Collectors, however, indicated that there was a lesser instance of taccavi system. Probably the chief causes were the Company's indebtedness and the increasing difficulty of providing the annual remittance to England; the competition of the parallel system of advances to silk weavers and others. After the stabilisation of the British administration since 1857 such advances have been one of the regular features of the agricultural economy.

Agronomy.

The economy of the district of Champaran being predominantly dependant upon agricultural conditions, the study of relationship between the population and the soil and all other relevant issues will not be out of place here.

During the end of the eighteenth century the Collector of Saran made an estimate of population at 12 lakh souls when the district combined both Sarkars Saran and Champaran. In 1811, the estimate rose to 25 lakhs and the reason for the increase was shown due to the improvement in the material condition of the district. In 1891 Champaran alone returned 18 lakhs whereas both Saran and Champaran put together totalled more than 42 lakhs. This shows the material conditions changing favourably to a new higher order. In 1845 and 1854 there were attempts of revenue surveys which returned 1,40,399 houses, 8 lakhs 60 thousand souls, the ratio being 6.13 souls per house in 1845 and in 1854 the figures were 1,48,562 houses, 6,68,529 souls, the ratio being 4.5 souls per house. Both these estimates were found incorrect when in 1872, that is six years after the elevation of Sarkar Champaran to the status of an independent district, that the first regular census was taken. It returned a total population of 14,40,815 which rose to 17,21,608 in 1881 or by a little more than 20 per cent. This marked rise in population, accepting errors of omission and in spite of the great famine of 1874, could be attributed to the undeveloped potentialities of the district. C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Esq., I.C.S., reports in his *Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations* during 1892 to 1899 in Champaran district, published in 1900, that—

> " Even now the population is very sparse; there is abundance of rich land waiting for the plough, and rents are low. The agricultural development of the north of this district is still in its infancy, and thus in 1881 the increase in Bettiah subdivision was found to be 22 per cent as against 17 per cent in the headquarters subdivision. In the extreme north malarial fever is the great enemy of progress, but one that increased cultivation is steadily driving back ".

He substantiates it by the help of a table which gives a comparative statement of the population, thana by thana, according to the census returns of 1872, 1881 and 1891 and mentions that the percentage of increase, thana by thana, found in 1881 is not supplied, as owing to changes in thana jurisdiction, it would be only misleading.

From the figures of 1881 the total population in 1891 showed a moderate increase of 8.1 per cent. Of the two subdivisions, Bettiah showed the larger trend. In Bettiah subdivision Shikarpur with 15.2 per cent and Bagaha and in the Sadar Adapur with 20.9 per cent and Gobindganj exceeded the district average increase. In the contiguous thanas bordering on Nepal and in the north-west thana of Bagaha, agriculture showed large extensions. Gobindganj may have increased its population by the immigration of surplus population from Saran. In Kessaria, Madhuban and Dhaka which were bordering Muzaffarpur and had similar conditions showed only small increase. C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Esq., I.C.S., quoted in the *Final Report,* Mr. Dunbar Blyth, Collector of Champaran, from his *District Census Report of* 1891 in the following manner :—

> " The increase in Hardi (Shikarpur) thana is due to the immigration of people from the districts of Saran and Gorakhpur, and from densely populated parts of Champaran, into the fallow, but thinly inhabited, tracts in the north-west of Hardi thana which were transferred from the jurisdiction of Bagaha. Adapur, which borders on Nepal, contains very fertile land; but until within recent years cultivation had not extended to it. All waste land in the thana is now being taken up, and in consequence there has been a very marked increase in the population........ The pioneers of cultivation in this part of the district are the Tharus, and as the jungle is being cut and the cultivation extended, the tract is becoming less unhealthy and land in it will become more and more sought after, and the pressure of the population in Saran and Gorakhpur, and in the more southern parts of this district will, no doubt, in time lead to the northern portion of the district being more thickly populated than it is at present. A portion of it, however, which is covered with low hills, can never afford the same advantages to cultivators as other parts of the district, and the northern part of the district must always remain less thickly populated than the other parts of it ".

The analysis has been supported by C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Esq., I.C.S., in a table showing the density per square mile of the population of each thana in 1872, 1881 and 1891, the area at that time cropped and available for cultivation, and the then existing rent rates.

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Area in sq. mile.	Density per square mile.			Percentage of the total area.			Rate of rent per acre for occupancy *raiyats*.	Remarks.
			1872.	1881.	1891.	Net cropped area.	Culturable area.	Area not available for cultivation.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
									Rs. a. p.	
1	Bagaha	619	161	278	304	50	36	14	1 9 2	
2	Shikarpur	554	223	238	274	69	23	8	1 10 4	
3	Bettiah	547	539	607	622	69	21	10	1 10 8	
	Bettiah Total	1,720	279	350	377	62	27	11	1 10 2	
4	Adapur	224	511	618	747	85	8	7	2 1 2	
5	Dhaka	335	686	756	803	83	10	7	2 8 1	
6	Motihari	290	496	620	660	71	20	9	1 11 4	
7	Gobindganj	286	522	607	658	70	19	11	1 14 3	
8	Kessaria	273	561	661	683	79	12	9	1 13 3	
9	Madhuban	122	658	815	849	81	10	9	2 11 3	
	Sadar Total	1,530	589	670	724	78	13	9	2 0 6	
	District Total	3,250	408	488	527	70	20	10	1 14 1	

Vide, *Final Report on Survey and Settlement Operations* (1900), page 15.

The difference in the average rent rates between Motihari, Gobindganj and Kessaria thanas on one hand and Adapur, Dhaka and Madhuban thanas on the other, has been attributed by Mr. Stevenson-Moore due to the difference in soil. He remarks: "In the first three thanas, which are mainly west of the small Gandak, the prevailing soil is a light sand. In Adapur and Dhaka it is a thick clay, which grows very luxurious paddy crops. In Madhuban conditions are approximate to those in Tirhut. The density of population in Madhuban is 849, in Dhaka 803, and in Adapur 747. The density even in Adapur exceeds the North Bihar average by 134. But I do not think the high rent rates, except perhaps in Madhuban, are mainly and directly due to the high density of population. A wave of agricultural enterprise starting from the southerly thanas, has flowed northwards through the thanas of Dhaka and Adapur within recent years, drawn by the extraordinary fertility of the soil. Having covered most of this tract, it is now spreading to Shikarpur thana. Another flowing eastward from the congested parts of Saran and Gorakhpur is similarly making its way over thana Bagaha".

He faced difficulties in getting an approximate accuracy regarding the percentages of the population, as cultivators and as labourers, were mainly dependent on the produce of the soil for their livelihood. This came up when he tried to discuss the material conditions of the people. One major obstructing factor, according to him, was the caste consciousness of the people. The Brahmins in fact who were cultivators had stated their occupation as priest and conversely a Koiri, who lived by serving others asserted that he was a cultivator. The confusion as regards the actual dependence on agriculture was justified. On the basis of the 1891 census 13,23,125 persons showed their occupation as agriculture thus accounting for 72 per cent of the population. This figure he denied to accept as he found it underestimated and gave his own figure as 85 per cent. He divided the agricultural class into three groups of pure cultivators, cultivators with other professions, if any, and cultivating labourers, but for convenience's sake, he put the cultivating labourer in the same column with the landless labourers, a column he set apart for 'others', and produced the relative percentages of the three groups out of the total population—

Pure cultivators	61
Labourers	33
Others	6
	100

This throws some light on the relative importance of particular castes from the agricultural point of view, and the percentage of the area occupied by each afforded additional corroboration. The following eight castes, viz., Goala, Rajput, Brahman, Koiri, Babhan, Kayasth, Kurmi and Sheikh, totalling a little over 36 per cent of the total population according to the census of 1891, covered 60 per cent of the area.

Among the different religious communities, excepting Christians, both Hindus and Mohammedans depended largely on the soil for their subsistence. The tendency per female to increase relatively to males, was another interesting and important economic feature and this indicated more civilized and settled social and, therefore, agricultural conditions. There were immigrants, mainly from the three districts of Gorakhpur, Saran and Muzaffarpur. From Nepal also many came and settled down in Champaran.

Mr. Stevenson-Moore has concluded his analysis in the following two paragraphs :—

" In this section I have tried to trace the expansion of population in Champaran—Round Bettiah the headquarters of a powerful Raj and the southernmost thanas the country was cleared and peopled in very old times, while the rest of this large district was little better than a vast expanse of grass and forest, unbroken save by a hermit's abode, or by an isolated patch of cultivation sufficient to show the great possibilities that lay beyond it. The congested areas in this and the surrounding districts found an outlet to the east, in Dhaka and Adapur thanas; and the expansion was encouraged by the extraordinary fertility of the tract exploited, which now supports a density of population equal to most thanas in Tirhut. The onward movement still continues, checked only by the evil reputation that the northern portion of thanas Bagaha and Shikarpur have earned for a virulent type of malarial fever. But as the country is opened out it grows much healthier and this deterrent ceases to act.

The district, then with which we are dealing is one where rents are low, where population is sparse; where land available for cultivation is plentiful and of good quality yet this is the district in which the famine of 1896, not only was probably most severe, but also was soonest felt. Here is a fact which western methods of economic investigation entirely fail to explain. If there was one district in Bihar that should have been able to make a good fight on its own resources against famine, it was Champaran. But this was the district which was the first to succumb, and within certain restricted areas the most severely affected. Such is the problem that a consideration of census statistics has suggested. In treating the material condition of the people an attempt will be made to solve it."

Mr. O'Malley writes in the Census Report for 1911 regarding the population in relation to agriculture :—

" Compared with the other districts of the Tirhut Division, Champaran has but a thin population. Not only is the proportion of unculturable land (17 per cent) higher than elsewhere, but a large part of culturable area still awaits development. Pasturage rather than agriculture has engaged the energies of its inhabitants until fairly recent times. Partly for this reason and partly because of the prevalence of malaria, which saps their energies, the people are but indifferent cultivators, and only two-thirds of the culturable area have been brought under the plough ".

Mr. J. A. Sweeney, I.C.S., in his *Final Report on the Revised Survey and Settlement Operations,* published in 1922, has shown by a comparative statement that the mean density per square mile had increased in Champaran consistently since 1872, when the density per square mile was 408, in 1881— 488, in 1891— 527, in 1901— 507 and in 1911— 540. This the net variation of population in this district had been 32.5 per cent during the span of 1872 to 1911. Though the overall picture appeared to be satisfactory, there was a considerable set-back in the period 1891—1901 (— 3.7 per cent), a set-back from which the district did not appear to have quickly recovered. The famine of 1897 was accepted generally as the cause of this temporary decline but the 1901 census report attributed the cause to malarial affections and epidemics of cholera and plague. The population of the district nevertheless, made a remarkable recovery between 1901 and 1911 in which period it showed the largest proportional increase of the North Bihar districts, just as in 1901 it showed the greatest proportional decrease. It did not appear that there had been any very conspicuous improvement in public health in the decade 1901—1911 though the general impression was that climate had generally improved. Another significant fact was that there had been a decrease in the cultivated area since the first settlement. This could not be attributed to climate or public health, as the decrease had been most marked in thanas Motihari, Kessaria and Gobindganj which were not particularly conspicuous for bad climate and epidemics. The population of thanas Motihari and Gobindganj was still in 1921 than in 1891, while that of thana Kessaria had scarcely increased. In these three thanas the arrested development must have been due to something more than climate and health. To some extent the comparative lightness of the soil, and the opening up in the last two decades of the more fertile northern areas by numerous new communications and irrigation systems might have been the reasons. The following is a statement showing for 1891, 1901 and 1911 the density of population in the thanas and subdivisions :—

	1911.	1901	1891.
Sadar subdivision	726	686	724
Motihari	643	602	660
Adapur	784	749	747
Dhaka	854	771	803
Kessaria	689	661	683

	1911.	1901	1891.
Madhuban	806	810	849
Gobindganj	605	581	..
Bettiah subdivision	460	373	377
Bettiah	656	623	607
Bagaha	302	285	304
Shikarpur	307	272	..

The density was greatest in thanas Dhaka, Madhuban and Adapur where the land is very fertile and is now largely protected by irrigation. The development of Madhuban had been arrested by plough. The failure of Bagaha to recover the density of 1891 was due to the malarious climate of the northern tract and the transfer of 48 southern villages to thanas Bettiah and Shikarpur. In 1911, out of the total population of 19,08,385, 90 per cent or 17,28,902 persons were engaged in agriculture. And in agriculture 15,300 were receivers of income from agricultural land, 12,97,498 ordinary cultivators, 4,638 agents, managers of landed estates (not planters), clerks, rent collectors, etc., 4,10,862 farm servants and field labourers and 595 were growers of special products and market gardening. 13,943 persons were raising farm stock. Champaran was more dependent on agriculture than any district in the province of Bihar and Orissa, as 906 persons out of every 1,000 were supported. It had also the largest rural proportion of population. The rapid development of the district should have depended largely on immigration but peculiarly enough there had been a falling off since 1901 and that at the same time emigration had increaed. In 1901 the figures for Immigrants and Emigrants were 1,06,781 and 36,077 as against 95,518 and 47,832 in 1911, respectively. The population variation between 1931 and 1941 was 11.7 per cent as against 4.9 per cent between 1941 and 1951, the net variation being 7,24,880 between the 1951 and 1901 censuses. This increase in population has put much pressure on agricultural conditions because the district still continues to be predominantly agricultural. In the period of 1913—1919 an average net area of 13,86,851 was sown in Champaran as against 14,29,360 acres on average for the quinquennium ending 1921 and 14,77,094 acres on average for the quinquennium ending 1951. The population of Champaran is distributed very unevenly. And this is due to the fact that in the eastern revenue thanas of the Sadar subdivision which adjoin the Muzaffarpur district, the density of population exceeds 1,000; in the central portions of the district, the density varies from 800 to 950; while in the sub-montane area in the north-west, it is only 300 to 450 persons per square mile, the average density being 713 per square mile in 1951. Motihari subdivision has gained in 1951 more than Bettiah subdivision. In 1931—1941 Motihari subdivision had a gain of 12.1 per cent as against 11.2 per cent for Bettiah subdivision. In 1941—1951 Motihari subdivision had a variation of 4.0 per cent as against 6.2 per cent of Bettiah subdivision.

CHANGING PATTERN.

Taking all facts together we come to the conclusion that the traditional agriculturist is having a change in his status and fortune and that the change generally may be regarded for the better. The changes that are taking place in the agricultural system, land tenures, abolition of zamindari, caste structure, etc., are going to affect the agriculturist profoundly. There is no longer the system of 'tied labour'. The owner of land however big he may be, has been denied of the privilege. The agriculturist is now free from the oppressions of the erstwhile zamindars but he is neither having happy dealings at the hands of the State *Karmacharis* in charge of the collection of rents. This relationship is however going to improve as the new set-up will be more and more closely supervised by the authorities. Men belonging to higher castes have lost the automatic elation to the position of village leadership by means of caste consideration alone.

The agriculturist is now enjoying more option in selecting the kind of crop he is to cultivate than his predecessors. The modern agriculturist, however, is more inclined towards the cultivation of cash crops like sugarcane, chillies and tobacco. Indigo and opium once cultivated in this district under compulsion imposed by the vested interests have totally ceased to the great relief to both the agriculturist and the society at large. Though there are fluctuations in the earnings from the cash crops, still the attraction is there. The cultivation of cash crops has been instrumental in bringing up some so to say agricultural industries, small and large, e.g., oil pressing, *gur* making and sugar mills or one may say *vice versa*.

Wages paid in kind are rather becoming unpopular and there is the increasing demand for being paid in cash. Labourers are now enjoying more freedom and are much more mobile than their predecessors. Tied labour in any form whatsoever has been abolished altogether. Credit facilities have been forthcoming in the mofussil areas more and more. The age-old process of fragmentation of holding has been sought to be checked. The index of urbanisation is going up and this affects agriculture indirectly.

Large money had been accumulated in the hands of the lower caste people during Second World War. Many prudent villagers bought up lands with the help of this money. This caused the price of land go up considerably. The agriculturist's previous social stigma has often been turned to advantage. Today the landless labourer is not so helpless as he was in the past. He is now in a position to dictate the term of wages. There has been an increasing tendency on the part of the farmers' sons to go after already overcrowded white-collared jobs though they may have little qualifications to satisfy the needs of their service conditions. This may be due to the fact that in spite of its uneconomic nature the Government servant enjoys immense awe and prestige among the villagers.

Accumulation of money is now more evenly shared than before. The citadel of casteism is slowly being undermined by the amount of wealth in one's hand. The agriculturist is certainly gaining his status as an individual. The changes have weakened the forces among the poorer sections who have not always been able to adjust themselves to the changing pattern and consequently there is often a tension of the nerves and clash of interests. One can still be optimistic about their future as there have been general improvements all around. Economic power is no longer concentrated in the possession of land rights.

An agriculturist is still more interested in meeting primary needs and his daily and family life like food and clothing, rather than spend on tobacco, betel, tea or alcoholic drinks. But it is not rare that he sometimes persuades himself to spend a small portion of his purse over these avoidable items. Fuel and lighting form a very small percentage of his expenditure. The main expenditures are incurred on cultivation, interest on loans, journeys and ceremonies, etc. Medical and educational expenses are almost insignificant in the budget unless the agriculturist's family is of a higher class. However, attention has been drawn towards the education of the children even of the Harijan class. Litigation is still eating into the vitals of the agriculturist, although the number of cases has gone down perceptively since the abolition of the zamindaris. Ceremonies are occasional visitations which take away a considerable part of the budget.

This changed pattern in the agrarian life of the district ensures for the agriculturist of the future a more leisurely and bountiful life. He is going to have in the near future a good cup of tea to relax, better food to eat and more clothing to wear.

NATURAL CALAMITY.

Liability to Famine.

In the revised *District Gazetteer* writen in 1932 (published in 1938) Mr. Swanzy has observed: " Champaran was previously particularly liable to the visitations of famine owing to its dependence on the rice crop and the absence of irrigation. A generally deficient monsoon is more disastrous to rice than any other crop for the prospects of the early rice are seriously prejudiced by a scanty rainfall at its beginning, while a premature termination is both fatal to the winter crop. If there is a total failure of both these crops, the people have nothing to subsist on until the harvesting of the *rabi* crops in the latter part of March, except maize and inferior millet crops, such as *kodo* and *sawan*. In dry years the *rabi* crops largely fail.

" Failure of the rains bears particularly hard on the Champaran *raiyats*, for as they inhabit a district in which copious rain is in normal years a certainty, where land is comparatively plentiful, and rents are low, they have not acquired the resource, energy and adaptability which are the attributes of their fellows in the more thickly-populated areas of Tirhut. Also they suffer more heavily from malaria and kindred diseases."

Since then there has not appeared anything which could be said to have affected the observations of Mr. Swanzy excepting that the malaria and kindred diseases have been partially controlled and the irrigational facilities have been extended considerably in the district.

Famines.

The district of Champaran was made a separate district in the year 1866 and since then up to the closing decade of the nineteenth century it was visited by several famines and scarcity. The most important of them are the famines of 1866, 1874, 1897, and the scarcity of 1889. It appears from a study of the Old English Correspondence Volumes preserved in the Record Room of Champaran that probably in 1842 also the district witnessed somewhat an acute distress, for letter no. 1173, dated the 10th November 1841, from the Commissioner, Patna Division, to the Joint Magistrate of Champaran, mentions " .... it seems highly probable that both the Khureef and Rubbee crops will fail this year from the want of rain ". And the Magistrate was asked to furnish a fortnightly return of the price of principal grains on which the majority of the people subsisted with a view to evolve suitable measures to " .... alleviate the distress which must necessarily result from the failure of the harvests................ ". However, further details about the distress and the relief measures adopted have not yet been traced out. The following paragraphs in connection with the first four natural calamities are quoted *in extenso* from the old *District Gazetteer* (1938) :—

" *Famine of* 1865.—In 1865 the rainfall was deficient and stopped early, none falling in October, with the result that the winter rice was almost a total failure. The previous autumn crops had been fair; but had been largely exported owing to the prevalence of high prices in the neighbouring districts; and consequently when the rice crop was lost, distress became general. As early as October, 1865, the commonest kind of rice could not be procured at less than 9 seers a rupee—three times the rate at which it was sold at the beginning of the year, and the price of all other foodgrains had risen in a similar proportion. The *rabi* crops were also poor owing to want of moisture, and *china,* a grain which is largely grown in the early summer, withered completely.

"No relief measures were undertaken till June, when road works were started and relief centres established at Motihari and Bettiah for the distribution of gratuitous relief in the shape of one daily meal of soaked grain. No system seems, however, to have regulated the distribution of food, the quantity which each applicant obtained depending on the numbers present; thus at Motihari the sum allotted for relief was so small that each applicant out of 1,500 received only four chittacks or half a pound of food per diem. To add to the general distress, the main embankment on the Gandak gave way in August, and the flood-water passing over the district till it joined the little Gandak swept away the crops over a large area The maize harvest, however, was good; prices fell in September and all relief centres were closed by the 1st October. In the meantime, the mortality from actual starvation and disease, accelerated by want of food, was very great; the total number of deaths reported being no less than 56,000 or 6 per cent, on an estimated population of 8,50,000."

"*Famine of* 1874.—In Champaran, as in other Bihar districts, the year 1871 was marked by excessive rainfall, the excess, varying from 12 inches in the Bettiah to 18.50 inches in the headquarters subdivision. This surplus rain fell chiefly in September and was followed by inundations, which caused great damage to the bulk of the autumn crops. The alluvial deposits brought down by the floods seem, however, to have benefited both the rice and the spring crops and the outturn of these harvests was satisfactory. The year 1872 was, on the whole, favourable from an agricultural point of view and were it not that in March, 1873, violent hail-storms in the north of the district caused serious injury to the spring in isolated trades of country, the harvests would have been decidedly good. As things happened, it may be said that the year preceding the year of failure was a fairly prosperous year, neither above the average nor below it—and during the latter part of 1872 and in the early part of 1873 the grain market recovered in a great measure its normal tone.

"The rains of 1873 were deficient all over the district, the deficiency being much more marked in the Bettiah subdivision than in Motihari. During June, July and August, i.e., the months in which the autumn crop is sown and matures, the rainfall in the headquarters subdivision was somewhat in excess while in the Bettiah subdivision it fell short of the normal quantity. The *bhadai* crops suffered much from this capriciousness in the rainfall, and in particular maize, which is more largely grown than any other *bhadai* crop except autumn rice, not more than five-eighths of an average crop being harvested. In September the rain practically ceased only a third of an inch falling in the whole month and this entailed the almost complete destruction of the winter rice crop. By the middle of January rice was quoted in Bagaha at 9 seers a rupee, and as the shopkeepers refused to sell even at that price, sales of Government rice were authorised.

"Rainfall in the beginning of the next month had immensely improved the prospects of the spring crops. In the meantime arrangements had been made for opening relief works and for importing over 10,00,000 maunds of grain. Incendiarism, robberies and other crimes prevalent in times of scarcity were becoming rife along the northern borders. In February Government relief was fairly established, relief works in the shape of tank-digging and road-making were opened, and the extension of the Gandak embankment was taken in hand. Early in June the rivers rose in the north of the district and flooded about 200 square miles, destroying all the Indian corn in the thanas of Motihari and Dhaka. The autumn crops, however, were fair, the outturn in the north-west and the centre of the district being exceptionally large, while in the east the yield was equal to the average. In the beginning of September, favourable accounts were received from all parts of the district except the east of Gobindganj where half of the late rice was said to have been totally lost. Before the end of that month, however, from 12 to 15 inches of rain had fallen, ensuring the winter harvest and spring sowings everywhere; and relief operations were closed at the end of September.

"In the relief of this famine Government distributed 1,190 tons of rice in charitable relief, sold 11,081 tons for cash, paid away 7,294 tons as wages on relief works, and advanced 8,012 on recoverable loans. It also distributed Rs. 36,950 in charity, paid Rs. 6,43,808 as wages on relief works and advanced Rs. 3,00,430 in loans. During January 11,631 persons were daily employed on relief works; in February 25,361; in March 52,758; in April 83,917; in May 1,59,668; in June 79,752; in July 73,007; in August 8,938; and in September 1,849."

"*Scarcity of* 1889.—Owing to the deficiency of the rainfall in 1888 and the consequent injury to the winter rice crop, there was scarcity in 1889 in the north of the district, in a tract of country forming the Dhaka thana and parts of the Motihari thana and Madhuban outpost. Relief operations were commenced in December and distress became acute in March owing to the partial loss of the *rabi* harvest. Relief works were closed at the end of June owing to the fall of abundant rain, which ensured full employment for the people on agricultural labour. The unusually heavy rain which fell in the latter part of July caused floods, and thus added to the sufferings of the poorer classes, about 2,000 of whom were in receipt of gratuitous relief during the months from July to September. The average daily attendance at relief works was greatest in May, when it aggregated 11,000."

"*Famine of* 1897.—The greatest famine of the century occurred eight years later and was caused by deficient and unfavourably distributed rainfall in 1895 and 1896, the effects of which were intensified by extraordinary high prices consequent on famine prevailing over a great part of India. Although the rainfall of 1895-96 was above the normal it was badly distributed. It was, on the whole, favourable for the crops until August, but it ceased prematurely none falling after the 21st September, not even in the *hathiya* asterism, when good rain is considered essential for the *aghani* rice crop and for providing moisture for the *rabi* and indigo crops. There was, moreover, practically no rain at all throughout the cold weather the total fall from October to March inclusive amounting to only half an inch.

"This was unfortunately followed by much more unfavourable conditions during 1896-97. In May 1896 the showers which facilitate the early sowings of the *bhadai* crops were much scantier than usual, and the monsoon rains began late, not breaking till the 25th June and then only feebly, the fall for June being less than half the average. The rainfall was capriciously distributed in different localities and remained in persistent defect throughout the rainy season, being 75 per cent below the normal in September; while not a drop fell after the 18th of that month until Christmas, with the exception of a shower on the 23rd November. There was a prolonged break of four weeks' duration from the 21st July to the 17th August, which did the greatest possible damage to the *aghani* rice and the *bhadai* crops and after the 1st September there was practically no rain at all that could be of any material benefit to the *aghani* rice crop. The total defect from May to October inclusive was 19.2 inches, or 40 per cent. Throughout the cold weather of 1896-97 occasional light showers fell, but in February there was a defect of 66 per cent.

"The result was a very inferior *bhadai* crop and an almost total failure of the winter rice, the outturn being only 8 and 3½ annas, respectively. These two crops account for nearly three-fourths of the harvests of the district; and as the outturn of the *rabi* was only 12 annas, the distress in Champaran was more general and widespread than in any other district of the division except Darbhanga. Moreover, Champaran shared in the general rise of prices, and felt it the more acutely because in ordinary years it produces more than it needs, and exports its produce largely to Saran and elsewhere; consequently its dealers, and its population generally, had to submit to a complete change of normal conditions, from easy prices to famine rates and from large exportations to the importation of food for actual subsistence.

"In these circumstances, during the months of greatest distress the whole district was severely affected, except four tracts, all of which owed their comparative prosperity to irrigation, viz.,

(1) thana Adapur on the northern boundary of the district where the streams issuing from the hills were dammed , (2) a tract round Sathi factory in Bettiah, which was irrigated from a channel from one of these streams, (3) a tract round Bettiah watered from the Sikrahna, and (4) a smaller patch in Dhaka thana protected by the Tiur canal. Two main areas in the district were always worse than the remainder, and in one of them works remained opened when they had been closed in all other parts of the division. The first was a tract corresponding roughly to the Dhaka thana, where the failure of the rains was more complete than elsewhere, and where rice is the principal crop. The second was a large tract to the north-west of Bettiah, of which Ramnagar was the centre, and which included the thanas of Bagaha and Shikarpur. Here many causes combined to render distress severe and the relief of it difficult; the climate is unhealthy, the population scanty, the soil poor; the cultivators are inert, ignorant and unthrifty; there is little *bhadai* and less *rabi,* and the prosperity of the whole tract depends on its rice crop, which in 1896 was an almost total failure. When a plentiful *bhadai* crop restored prosperity to the rest of Champaran in August, 1897, the Ramnagar tract remained unrelieved, first because it has little or no *bhadai,* secondly because up to a very late date the rainfall there was much in deficit, and thirdly, because from its climate and its northerly position the crops in this area are always from a fortnight to three weeks later than they are in the south of the district."

Regarding the course of the famine of 1897 Mr. Swanzy in his revised *District Gazetteer* has also quoted with some slight abbreviation, from the final report of the Collector, Mr. D. J. Macpherson, C.I.E. The quotations are :—

" Although the whole of the Champaran district was at one time affected by famine, the duration and degree of distress varied considerably in different parts of it. The failure of the crops was not very serious in the portion of the district comprising the Dhanaha out-post lying to the west of the Gandak river nor in the vicinity of that river in most of its course where it forms the boundary of the district; nor along the north of the eastern half of the district marching with Nepal, where much was done to save the rice crop and provide moisture for sowing the spring crops by damming the small streams that come down from that country. Serious distress was likewise staved off by similar means in the broken jungle tracts skirting the foot of the hills in the north of Bettiah subdivision; these are inhabited by a race of aborigines of Mongolian type, called Tharus who are good husbandmen. In a limited area in the north-eastern portion of Dhaka thana also a considerable area of winter rice was saved, and of spring crops sown, with the aid of water taken from the Lal Bakaya river to which a temporary dam was thrown by the exertions of the public interested.

"Generally speaking in those portions of the district in which a fair *bhadai* harvest was gathered or irrigation was available, the distress was never acute. But even throughout the more favoured areas all classes of the population, except the more substantial cultivators, who managed to raise sufficient food for their own consumption, suffered, in common with the rest of the district, from the unprecedently high level which prices reached early in the season and maintained almost throughout the whole 12 months. And in the tracts which were saved for the most part by irrigation there were always certain villages and cultivators' holdings which this benefit failed to reach. Every portion of the district had thus to be embraced in the organisation for relief.

"The most severely affected area was the Ramnagar tract in Hardi (now Shikarpur) thana in the north of the Bettiah subdivision, where both the early and late rice, practically the only crop it yields, failed completely. Here relief measures began earlier and ended later than anywhere else lasting altogether for eleven months from the 8th of November, 1896, to the 8th of October, 1897. The tract first affected there covered an area of about 445 square miles with a population of 1,63,000. Almost simultaneously two other rice areas began to suffer severely, one in the south of Gobindganj and the other in the south of Dhaka thana. By the middle of December, as the *bhadai* began to get exhausted, the distress had extended to considerable tracts which were not largely rice-producing; and by the close of that month not only was the greater part of Bagaha and Hardi (now Shikarpur) thanas affected, but also a large tract extending from Bettiah down the southern part of the district in Bettiah and Gobindganj thanas and the northern part of Kessariya; while a great part of the eastern portion of the district was also suffering severely. During January and February the famine-striken area widened somewhat in the neighbourhood of these tracts, and by the middle of March it extended over 1,865 square miles of country with a population of about 11,34,000. At the same time there was much distress occasioned by the general pressure of very high prices and hard times in an area of about 728 square miles, with a population of about 4,20,000 classed as 'slightly affected'.

"The middle of March marked the end of the first stage of the famine, the period during which the necessity for relief gradually extended, in the absence of employment for the people, until the commencement of the spring harvest. After this, the cultivators who had *rabi* crops began to be able for a time to fall back again on their own resources and the attendance at relief works decreased until the middle of April. This period of about six weeks may be regarded as forming the second stage of the famine.

"During May the severity of the distress again deepened, and the area severely affected extended. By the latter part of that month the whole of the district had become affected, as one stratum of the population after another came to an end of their resources; and the severely affected area extended to 2,100 square miles with a population of 12,75,000 and that slightly affected to 967 square miles with a population of 5,84,465. This the third stage of the famine, ended about the middle of June, when the monsoon rain reached the district, as it did on the 16th.

"The fourth stage of the famine was contemporaneous with the rainy season, and was characterised by a gradual mitigation of distress, as employment became generally available and money-lenders began to open their purse-strings, when a new crop was seen to be coming up well. The *china* millet, which was gathered in June, was also a help. During this period, however, there was on several occasions grave cause for the most gloomy forebodings owing to scanty rainfall and untimely and prolonged breaks, especially in that part of the district which had all along been suffering most acutely. The classes who were being relieved gratuitously continued to suffer as greatly as ever for a good while after those who could work were able to shift for themselves, as private charity could not be relied on to come to their rescue until the *bhadai* harvest was assured, while prices were higher than ever until after the middle of August. About the beginning of September, when a decided fall in prices came about, an area of 1,400 square miles with an estimated population of one million was removed from the category of severe to that of slight distress, but the total affected area remained the same as before. At this time 700 square miles with a population of 2,75,000 was still classed as severely affected, and 2,367 square miles with a population of 15,84,000 as slightly affected. By the 25th of September all relief in the latter was closed, but some works remained open until the 8th of October in the former tract, i.e., the Ramnagar part of the district, which had been the first to suffer nearly a year before".

In connection with this famine Mr. Swanzy further stated: "As regards the number of those relieved, the whole population of the district was affected by the middle of May, relief in some form or other having to be given, and this continued to be the case until the *bhadai* harvest began to come in the middle of September. Taking this, then, as the population affected, and 10 months as the period of famine, the daily average of 59,336 relieved on works and of 44,960 relieved gratuitously represents a percentage of 3.19 and 2.42, respectively, on the population affected. The time when the number in receipt of Government relief of all kinds was largest of all was in the second week of June, when it reached a daily average of 2,19,005 persons or 11.77 per cent of the affected population of whom 1,23,007 or 6.61 per cent were relieved on works and 95,998 or 5.16 gratuitously. The number relieved on works, reckoned in terms of one day, was a little over 18 millions as compared with 15 millions in 1874, and the aggregate number receiving gratuitous relief was over 31 millions. The total expenditure by Government amounted to nearly Rs. 25 lakhs, of which one-half was spent in wages and a quarter in gratuitous relief, while Rs. 3 lakhs were advanced as loans. Owing to the extent and adequacy of the relief measures, no deaths occurred from starvation ".

Scarcity of 1951-52.—There has not been any notable scarcity in the district since the revised *District Gazetteer* was written (1932) excepting the scarcity of 1951-52 and a few minor scarcities which were noticed in the years 1932-33, 1939-40, 1940-41 and 1950-51. These minor scarcities were overcome without much difficulties and as such they do not deserve to be mentioned in detail here. However, the scarcity of 1951-52 was of greater importance and special efforts had to be made to relieve the people from the scarcity condition.

The scarcity of 1951-52 was the cumulative effect of scarcity of 1950-51, flood and scarcity of 1951-52 and the war ridden economy of the Second Great World War. The State Government declared the entire district of Champaran a scarcity area and sanctioned a sum of Rs. 17.70 lakhs to extend relief to the affected people. The total sum of Rs. 17.70 lakhs was to be spent in different manners, the most important of which being hard manual labour for which a sum of Rs. 9.50 lakhs had been sanctioned. Gratuitous relief, construction of roads through local bodies, light manual labour and salaries of establishments accounted for Rs. 3.50 lakhs, Rs. 1 lakh and Rs. 20,000, respectively. Schemes for hard manual labour, light manual labour and construction of roads were extended to provide the opportunity of employment to the people while the provision for gratuitous relief was made for those who were incapable of doing any manual labour. 2,000 *kurtas* and 2,000 *janghias* were also distributed among the indigent children on behalf of Government. Besides, a sum of Rs. 33,054 was received as donation from the Bihar Famine Charitable Relief Fund and some donations in kind were also received from different agencies to be distributed free of cost. The names of the agencies with their respective donations are mentioned below:—

(1) National Christian Council, Bombay—285 maunds of wheat.
(2) Additional Collector, Patna—30 bags of rice and 100 bags of millet flour.
(3) Special Rationing Officer, Patna—45 bags of cereals and 200 tablets of soap.
(4) Australian Red-Cross Society—20 tons of rice.
(5) Merchants of Burma—20 tons of rice.
(6) U. N. I. C. E. F., Burma—20 tons of rice.
(7) Indian Supply Mission, America—1,080 maunds of wheat.

Relief work actually started in May, 1951. To facilitate work and exercise better control the entire district was divided into 17 charges and each was put in charge of a gazetted officer known as Charge Superintendent. Red ration cards were issued to indigent persons with directions to take ration from their neighbouring ration shops. The darkest period of scarcity was June and July, 1951, when the number of indigent persons rose to over 23,000 in the entire district.

Under hard manual labour a number of schemes like re-excavation of tanks, repair of bunds, repair of village roads, desilting of wells, etc., were taken up and a sum of Rs. 6 lakhs and odd was spent. Under light manual labour needle work, cotton spinning, shoe making, basket making, etc., were included and a sum of about Rs. 35,000 was spent over them which were taken advantage of chiefly by *purdahnasin* ladies. A sum of about Rs. 2,27,500 was spent over gratuitous relief and the expenditure over the construction of roads (40 in numbers) through the local agencies accounted for about Rs. 2,73,500.

The scarcity actually started in the month of May, 1951, and continued till the month of September, 1951, in the district as a whole but in Tharuhat and Dhangaran areas the scarcity continued and the relief was given till a later date. There was no starvation death in the district.

Protective Measures.

In his revised *District Gazetteer* Mr. Swanzy mentions : "Since the great famine of 1897 the railway has been extended through the north of the district by lines from Bettiah to Bagaha *via* Narkatiaganj and from Narkatiaganj *via* Raxaul Bairagnia. These extensions insure rapid communication practically throughout the district.

"The northern areas of the district are also now protected largely by irrigation from failure of crops due to shortage of rainfall. The Tribeni canal and the Dhaka canal have been constructed in addition to the Tiur canal. The former is the more ambitious project, running as it does across the waterway of the north of the district. Irrigation from it therefore has often been interrupted by breaches due to sudden floods in the hill-streams. Difficulty has also often been experienced owing to silting of the Gandak at the head sluice of the canal at Bhaisalotan and also silting of the canal itself. The canal, in spite of these difficulties, has been of very great benefit to the district. These difficulties have not been met with, in the district. These difficulties have not been met with, in the case of the Dhaka canal which ensures magnificent rice crops in the area irrigated except in years of very unusual floods."

Now there has been made some improvement in the Tribeni canal, details of which have already been mentiond earlier. As stated above various other kinds of irrigational facilities have also been provided in the district, although many of them have not come in use at present. There has also been rapid development of road vehicular traffic. All these have rendered the district practically immune from famine.

Liability to Flood.

Writing about the liability to flood Mr. Swanzy mentions, "The configuration of Champaran renders it peculiarly liable to inundation. In the past the Great Gandak, a snow fed river, has caused serious flood. But the embankment maintained by Government along the left bank of the river protects an area of 2,693 square miles. This embankment which is 83 miles long (including 21 miles of retired lines) extends from near Bagaha to the southern extremity of the district but there are four breaches in it. It is kept under a contract with the proprietors of the estates protected from inundation. The first contract was made in 1883, the second in 1903 and the third in 1923 for another term of 20 years, the sum of Rs. 25,600 per annum being fixed for the maintenance of the embankment.

"Floods are frequently caused by heavy rain in the foot-hills of Nepal and the Sumeswar range. The hill-streams fed from these hills rise very rapidly and overflow their banks inundating large areas. These floods in the north of the district are very short in duration as owing to the fall in the general level of the country, the water rapidly drains off. In this area, therefore, little damage is done to the crops. The people are used to these floods and little loss of life is caused, though in more severe floods there is considerable loss of livestock. In the centre and east of the district extensive tracts are liable to be flooded by the overflow of the Sikrahna, Lal Bakaya and Baghmati rivers and their tributaries."

His observations do not appear to have undergone any change excepting that the earthquake of 1934 brought some alteration in the level of the country which has increased the danger of flood at least for a few years immediately following the earthquake of 1934.

As has been mentioned above, floods are generally of very short duration in the district and ordinarily no damage is done to the property nor the loss of life is caused to any considerable extent. Still at times the district has been a victim of severe floods. Such floods, as mentioned by Mr. Swanzy are the floods of 1898, 1906, 1910, 1915, 1923 and 1924. In connection with these floods the following paragraphs *in extenso* are quoted from Mr. Swanzy's revised *District Gazetteer* of 1932 :—

"*Floods of* 1898.—The highest flood on record in Champaran was that which occurred in September, 1898, when over 20 inches of rain fell at Motihari from the 4th to the 10th. The tract most seriously affected extended over 350 square miles or about one-tenth of the district, lying chiefly in a strip about four miles broad on either bank of the Sikrahna between Sugauli and Mehsi, but the inundations were also of considerable extent in the south, where the floods of the Baghmati met those of the Sikrahna. The loss of life was very slight, only 16 persons being drowned but about 220 cattle and over 1,000 sheep and goats were swept away, and not less than one-third of the house in the badly affected area collapsed. The circuit house at Motihari fell, and the police-stations at Sugauli, Madhuban, Chauradano and Raxaul were destroyed. The Bengal and North-Western Railway was topped for miles and badly breached, with the result that traffic was at a standstill for over a month; while the Sugauli-Raxaul line was most severely damaged, the bank being completely washed away in places. Both these lines run across a strong line of drainage; and the waterways being insufficient the flood was given an accumulated volume and velocity, which greatly increased its power for destruction.

" Most of the *bhadai* crops in the affected area were destroyed, the loss being estimated at about two-thirds of the outturn. On the other hand, the winter rice was not damaged to any considerable extent and in fact was benefited by the heavy rain except in the tract close to the Sikrahna. The cultivators were also compensated by the rich deposit of silt, in some places 3 inches thick, which was left on the land submerged by the flood: and no sooner did the water recede than they began to prepare their fields for the cold weather crops. The labouring classes were not in any distress, as there was employment for all willing to work, houses being rebuilt, lands prepared for the *rabi* crops, and roads repaired on all sides. Agricultural loans were granted on a large scale but no other relief measures were necessary."

"*Flood of* 1906.—The last serious flood occurred in August, 1906, owing to the overflow of the Sikrahna river and its tributaries and also in a less degree to the temporary rise of the Great Gandak, by which some damage was caused in the Bettiah and Gobindganj thanas. The whole of the Motihari and Madhuban thanas, a portion of the Dhaka thana, and small tracts in the east of the Kessariya thana, the north of the Gobindganj thana, and the east of the Bettiah thana were affected, the worst damage being in the area between Siraha and Mehsi in the Madhuban thana. The area affected was roughly 400 square miles and here the maize crop was almost entirely swept away, while the *bhadai* and *aghani* rice crops were seriously damaged. Considerable distress was caused by the flood, and it was found necessary to open kitchens for granting gratuitous relief and to advance a large sum in loans. Test works were opened, but failed to attract labour and soon after the floods evidence of the marvellous recuperative powers of the people was forthcoming, for scarcely had the flood subsided when they began to sow and transplant the paddy seedlings."

"*Floods of* 1910, 1915, 1923 *and* 1924.—In subsequent years flood occurred in the district on a comparatively small scale, especially in the years 1910, 1915 and 1923. In 1915 the flood was high in the Sikrahna and Baghmati in the south-east of the district. *Takavi* loans were given out but no other relief was necessary. Collection of these loans was suspended in some areas in 1916 owing to a further flood in the Sadar subdivision of small dimensions. In 1923 a heavy flood in the Sikrahna occurred which was exceptionally high in the north of the district. The flood was very sudden. There was no warning and the level in the Sikrahna rose as much as 5 feet in four hours. In spite of this there appears to have been little loss of life as the people, well accustomed to similar conditions, retired to high ground without delay. Four corpses were seen in Ramnagar thana but were not identified and no reports were received from the village in the area of any loss of life. The flood backed up against the Tribeni Canal and the railway embankment breaching both. The damage to the Tribeni Canal was estimated at Rs. 75,000. The railway between Bhairogunj and Khairpokhra and between Sikta and Gokhula stations was also seriously damaged and road communications also suffered damage amounting to Rs. 5,000 being done to a pile bridge near Lauriya. A number of cattle were lost, chiefly from among large herds which grazed in the north of the district. Considerable loss was incurred in the Narkatiaganj Bazar owing to storages of grain and salt being damaged by flood. The flood, however, in other respects caused little loss. Water rapidly drained off and the crops were probably all the better afterwards. No distress was caused and no measures of relief were found necessary".

"*Flood of* 1924.—In 1924 there was a slight flood in the Gandak river in September which caused no loss of life or damage to property generally. This flood was important because two iron girders of the Bagaha railway bridge were washed away. The bridge has never been repaired and in consequence direct railway communications have been interrupted between Champaran and Gorakhpur. The direct cause of this disaster was rather a change in the course of the river than excessive flood."

Floods between 1934-35 *to* 1953-54.

As stated above since the earthquake of 1934 there had been some change in the general level of the district making it more vulnerable to floods, especially for few years after the earthquake. The district fell victim of minor floods in the years 1934-35, 1935-36, 1936-37, 1943-44, 1948-49 and 1950-51. All these floods were of very short duration and did not cause any noticeable harm to the people and as such they do not deserve any special mention. However, the district also suffered from flood in the years 1938-39 and 1953-54 which brought a good deal of sufferings in their trail to the people.

In the flood of 1938-39 there had been some breaches in the Gandak embankment in the 39th mile in Bettiah subdivision. The flood was of such a severe nature that the villagers of the neighbourhood had to abandon their hearths and homes and settle elsewhere. However, there was no loss of human life although some cattle were washed away. Immediate relief measures were adopted to help the flood-striken people.

Between 24th to 27th July in the year 1953-54 all the rivers emanating from Nepal rose in flood simultaneously and the district fell a victim of flood. The flood was more severe in Sadar subdivision than the Bettiah subdivision. Prompt relief measures like provision of boats, distributions of gratuitous relief, supply of cheap foodgrains through fair price shops, distribution of *taccavi* loans, etc., were adopted. The relief officers, after enquiries on the spot distributed *taccavi* loans on the joint and bond system at local camps. The quick distribution of loans went a long way to sustain the flood affected people and at the same time enabled them to purchase paddy seeds for the first transplantation. Loan distribution was resumed in the flood affected areas on a wider scale from the first week of October, 1953, to enable people to cultivate *rabi* crops. Landless labourers were provided with employment as road improvement schemes were extended. Due to these measures and good harvest of *rabi* the material condition of the people returned to normal before the close of the year.

There was an investigation regarding the floods in the rivers by the Irrigation Department. From their elaborate report the following quotations are given :—

" *The River Sikrahna* (*Burhi Gandak*).—The flood during the year under review was abnormal. It rose to its maximum level on the morning of the 30th July, 1953, which was recorded at the Chanpatia Railway Gauge as R. I. 247.75, against R. I. 246.00 of last year.

" All of its tributaries were in heavy flood and consequently the river spilled after Basantpur (in Lauria police-station). In certain localities such as Sugaulighat, Barnawaghat, Lalbagiya and Madhuban in Champaran district, the river spilled over both its banks damaging standing Bhadai and paddy crops in Majhaulia, Motihari, Sugauli and Madhuban police-stations.

" Some special features of the river during the flood in this year are given below :—

(*i*) At Basantpur, the river Sikrahna received a moderate discharge through its distributaries named Masan, etc., which did not spill this year.

(*ii*) Its another tributary, the Balore, was supplemented with the discharge of hilly streams Harbora and others a little above the crossing of a railway bridge of 7 × 40′-0″ on the west of Sikarpur. This was also in H. F. L. at the same time, i.e., on the 30th July, 1953.

. . . . . .

(*iii*) Its tributaries, Pandai, Karthaha, Gadh, Telawe, Sariswa, Bongri and Pasadh were also in high flood simultaneously.

" *Telawe Nadi.*—The H. F. L. was recorded by the observation of flood marks as R. I. 253.06 in the month of July, 1953. The river spilled over its bank near Raxaul-Sugauli Railway line crossing at Ramgarhwa and eroding the bank by nearly 100 feet, the spill water damaged standing Bhadai and paddy crops but the latter crops were retransplanted as the flood did not last long. However, the river maintained smooth gradient, did not reach the maximum H. F. L. and had less velocity than the Bongri.

" The villages Bila, Rampurwa, Singhasani, etc., were inundated with flood water with combined spill of the Uria, Sikta and Garh *nadies* with depth of spill varying from 2 feet to 4 feet.

" *Ramgarhwa.*—Sugauli road was overtopped at several places and the depth of water over the road was found to be from 6 inches to 1 foot.

" *The Pasah river.*—This river flowing through Adapur police-station joined the river Bongary near Banjari. The private embankment on the western side of the river breached near Katkanwa and damaged the whole area lying between its own course and that of Bongari, Narkatia, Siswania, and Bhaluahia villages were badly damaged.

" *The river Bongari.*—The river runs with a high velocity and does not maintain a particular course; now-a-days it flows parallel to the railway line (Darbhanga-Narkatiaganj) for a distance of about 1,000 feet in the middle of Raxaul-Adapur railway stations. This has got very swift current and was to form a new course sweeping the railway line about 1,000 feet west of the existing railway culvert this year.

" (*iv*) Near about Barnawaghat in Motihari police-station four main streams of the Nepal hills, namely, the Telawe, Bongari, Pasahand and Tiur *nadies* meet the river Sikrahana as a result of which the river spilled over both its banks and the spill water spread over an area of about 20 to 25 square miles in Motihari police-station, the depth of the spilled water being 2 feet to 6 feet. The spilling of either bank continued in Bhainsra and Ratra series of *chaurs* in Motihari police-station.

" (*v*) In the year 1897, a marginal embankment about three miles in length, was constructed on the left bank of the Sikrahna for checking the left bank spill, but in the year 1906 there was abnormal flood which breached the embankment and established an eastward flow overtopping Motihari-Teteria Road in the 17th and 18th miles. This flow of spill water passed through the Chaknaha *nadi* and spread over Bhunda *chaur*. Since then the regular spill of the Sikrahana passes through these areas. It was also learnt that the river Sikrahana was flowing through another course which was touching village Jitauraon, the left bank.

The spill of the river Sikrahana also spread over the area between Narpahar Pakri and Pipra on the north of Muzaffarpur-Narkatiaganj railway line. The area near about Mehsi railway station was also under the influence of flooding from the Sikrahana.

Important Places and Communications Affected.

Sikta-Motihari Road.—It was overtopped in the 1st, 11th, 14th, 17th and 19th miles due to the spills of the Sikrahana and its tributary Tilawe. The depth of water on the road was observed from 6 inches to 1 foot 6 inches. One breach of nearly 100 feet in length occurred in the 18th mile near Ramgarhwa railway station.

Sugauli-Raxaul Road.—This road was overtopped in the 1st to 8th miles due to the spill of the Sikrahana river, the depth of water being 6 inches to 1 foot over the road.

Motihari-Tetaria Road.—This road was breached in the 16th, 26th and 28th miles for considerable length. The depth of soundings over the road was found to be 1 foot 6 inches to 2 feet.

Sikarpur-Lauria Road.—This road was overtopped in the 3rd, 4th, 7th and 8th miles with an average depth of flood spill of 6 inches to 1 foot.

Lauria-Ramnagar Road.—This road was overtopped in the 1st, 2nd, 4th to 12th miles. In the 1st and 2nd miles on the either side of Pakri bridge, 3 feet deep water was flowing over the road.

Bettiah-Chainpatia Road.—The road was overtopped in the 7th, 8th, 10th and 11th miles with an average depth of 1 foot spill water. Only one serious breach occurred in the 9th mile.

Bettiah-Jagdishpur Road.—This road was overtopped in the 3rd, 4th, 5th and 8th miles with an average depth of 1 foot of spill water from the Sikrahana river.

Bettiah-Pipraghat Road.—This road was breached in the 5th mile for a length of nearly 900 feet and there was only 6 inches to 1 foot 6 inches depth of water over the road due to spill of the Chandrawati and Konhara, both being the tributaries of the Sakrahna river.

Important Places Affected.

(*i*) No important town was affected, save and except the suburb of Motihari town. The flood water reached so near Motihari town that the drainage system of Motihari Municipality nearly ceased to function.

(*ii*) The water level of the Motihari lake which is fed by this river through the nalla of Bettiah Raj rose up to the bottom of the rails nearly at culvert near Mina Bazar.

(*iii*) The villages Rampūra and Katkenwa in Majhaulia and Raxaul police-stations respectively, were also affected.

Causes of Flood.

The abnormal flood in the river Sikrahana were due to the following :—

(*i*) Heavy rainfall in the beginning of the monsoon period in the Champaran hills.

(*ii*) High flood in the tributaries.

(*iii*) Heavy rainfall continuously during the period 21st July to 31st July, 1953.

The rainfall for the period 21st to 31st July, 1953, when the highest level was attached by the river is given below :—

Rainfall stations.	Dates (month July).											
	21st	22nd	23rd	24th	25th	26th	27th	28th	29th	30th	31st	Total.
Motihari ..	7.08	0.96	0.70	1.33	0.20	0.49	1.02	2.85	1.52	0.21	0.20	16.56
Bettiah ..	2.85	1.75	1.60	0.35	0.15	0.28	0.90	0.88	2.90	..	..	9.66
Narkatia-ganj.	1.83	3.88	0.60	2.38	0.17	4.14	2.20	2.48	0.11	..	..	17.25
Kesariya..	0.35	2.25	1.50	0.10	2.72	3.25	0.20	0.10	0.36	..	..	10.83
									Total	..	..	54.30

The average of stations, for which the readings are available = 13.6 inches.

Remedial Measures.

(*i*) The marginal embankments should be provided along the banks of the Sikrahana river with sluices where considered necessary for drainage and also irrigation.

(*ii*) A scheme for the drainage of *chaurs* in Majhaulia police-station should be prepared, sent up for the consideration of the Government.

It is hoped that with the execution of the schemes as proposed above, the flood and drainage system of the adjacent areas which are affected by the spill of the Sikrahana may considerably be controlled and improved.

The River Bagmati.—The flooding of this district during the year due to the right bank spills nearabout villages Gonahi and Tajpur was abnormal and several important villages and roads of Patahi and Madhubani police-stations were inundated; roads were breached and practically there was no land communication during the flood time. The standing *bhadai* and paddy crops were severely damaged.

The discharge of the Bagmati at Dheng on 2nd October, 1953 was 16,216 cusecs while the discharges through the spill channels were as follows :—

Name.	Discharge on 2nd October 1953.	Width.
	Cusecs.	Feet.
Laulua Nala	447	..
Pardesia Nala no. 1	292	81
Ditto no. 2	206	45
Ditto no. 3	2,206	134
Ditto no. 4	307	42
Ditto no. 5	361	48
Gosaipur Nala	584	..
Main Bagmati downward ..	11,813	..
Total of Bagmati at Dheng ..	16,216	

During the high flood the discharge of these nallas may be assured in the same proportion. 3,372 cusecs, the total of the five Sugia Pardesia channels, was the discharge when the river was at low level. During high flood, the discharge through them might have been passing three times of this amount.

From the local enquiry it is gathered that these channels have become vigorous because of the direction of the Bagmati from its old course, so if the old course be revised, the pressure of the river in these spill channels will be reduced and the vast area affected by the Sugia Pardesia Nalas will be saved from the spill ravages of the river Bagmati.

(*a*) *Important villages affected.*

Villages Barkagao, Gobindbara, Phenhara and Anjhorabara in Patahi police-station were affected.

Villages Gonahi, Suga Pipra, Chainpur, Jihuli and Gujraul were most seriously affected due to the right bank spill of the Bagmati river.

(*b*) *Important communications affected.*

Dhaka.—Padumkar Road was breached in the 2nd mile. Dhaka-Phulwaria Road was breached in the 4th and 7th miles.

Madhuban.—Dihulia Road was overtopped by 6 inches to 4 feet deep water throughout its length. Patahi-Madhuban Road was breached in the 7th and 8th miles and overtopped by 2 feet deep flood water up to a length of $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile respectively. Motihari-Tetaria Road was breached in the 16th, 26th and 28th miles for considerable length. Flood water overtopped the road for half its length.

Remedial measures.

The main source of flooding of this district, by the river Bagmati, is the Sugia Pardesia spill channels. These have further developed during the last flood probably due to closing of mouth of Hirama spill channel in Muzaffarpur district though the latter gave way after a few days by outflanking. A proposal for providing a marginal embankment with suitable sluices along the river from junction point with the Lalbakia up to Hirama covering the above spill channels is under consideration and investigation.

The River Baya.—The channel below the junction of the Samohti with the Raghua at Bankal is known as the river Baya. Formerly it was a spill channel or *sota* of the river Gandak and is still fed through the Baya *nalla* in Muzaffarpur district.

The abovementioned rivers Samothi and Raghua are fed by the local drainage of the *chaurs* in Kesaria and Govindganj police-stations. The heaviest rainfall occurred in the beginning of the monsoon as mentioned in the rainfall report. The catchment basins of these rivers are mostly *chaurs,* such as Bahadurpur, Bhusaha, Ketra, Sonaula, Kesaria and Sundarpur *chaurs* which were totally submerged due to local rains, continuously from the month of July to September this year. The drainage channel falls in the Baya *nalla* which was also in flood due to local rains and consequently the abovementioned *chaurs* could not be drained out before the months of October and November. The standing paddy and *bhadai* crops were severely damaged.

Important Communication Affected.

Railway station, Pipra-Kalayanpur road was overtopped in the 6th and 7th miles at two places by 1 foot and 2 feet depth of water respectively.

Kalyanpur-Satarghat Road was overtopped in the 1st, 2nd, 5th, and 7th miles by 1 foot 6 inches deep water on average.

Rajpur-Chakia Road was overtopped in the 2nd, 6th and 10th miles by 2 feet 6 inches deep water on average. Boats were plying on the road near Brindaban *chaur* in the 6th mile in a length of one-fourth mile from the 22nd August to 15th September, 1953. The motor traffic was suspended, due to the overtopping of roads, for about two months.

Rajpur-Turkaulia Road was overtopped in the 2nd, 6th, 9th, 10th, 14th, 17th and 18th miles by 6 inches deep water.

Kesaria-Govindganj Road was overtopped in the 1st, 2nd, 8th and 9th miles by 9 inches depth of water.

Rajpur-Karnaul Road was overtopped in the 1st and 2nd miles by 1 foot 6 inches depth of water.

Rajpur-Sahebganj Road was overtopped in the 1st mile only by 6 inches depth of water.

Remedial Measures.

The drainage system of the *chaurs* may be improved by resectioning and regrading of portions of the Raghua *nalla* (not done so far). The survey and investigations for the revival of a dead channel from village Bhathua up to Madhopur Bangra for improving the drainage of the above *chaurs* are in progress and requisite scheme may be evolved in due course.

The River Gandak (Narayani).—General description of flood.—The river runs along the boundary of Champaran and Saran districts. The spill is protected by the Champaran embankment which is 83 miles long as well as by the Saran embankment. There are some gaps in the Champaran embankment, nearly two miles long in Kesaria police-station near village Karhan. As the river was in full spate, Karhan village was badly damaged and all standing crops were washed away by the spill passing through the above mentioned gap. The villages Nawadah, Pachoharia and Dumaria also suffered badly.

Effects of Flood on Champaran Embankment.

(*a*) *52nd mile at Barahwa.*—The river was over-active and had great erosive tendency here. The spurs and bank pilings were badly damaged and a few of them even collapsed. A width of 10 feet to 70 feet of marginal land was eroded. A great part of the village Barharwa was cut away. Due to these protective works, the main current has been diverted to a distance of half mile from the embankment but a live *sota* is still existing which may take an adverse turn in next flood.

Remedial measures.

To protect the embankment it is considered necessary to construct a number of single spurs (double rows) and 300 feet of bank pilings.

(*b*) *53rd mile.*—Due to erosion tendency of the river a width of 100 feet to 150 feet of marginal land was cut away.

Remedial measures.

To protect the embankment from further erosion it is necessary to construct a number of single spurs (double rows) 60 feet long.

(*c*) *54th mile*.—The *sota* was active here but by constructing three numbers of spurs in time, its erosive tendency was checked and the *sota* silted up to the best advantage of the embankment.

(*d*) *55th mile at Nagadaha*.—The *sota* was over-active here and a width of 400 feet to 500 feet of the marshy land was eroded in a length of about one-fourth mile and the main current of the river is diverted through the *sota* itself.

Remedial measures.

As the river has come too close to the embankment (only within 200 feet to 300 feet from the embankment) it is necessary to construct 1 number triangular spur and 6 numbers single spurs (double rows) 60 feet long to save the embankment from its dangers in the next flood.

The River Dhanauti.—General description of flood.—The rain water accumulating in the *chaurs* of Bettiah, Majhaulia and Harshidi police-stations reached into this river and inundated the areas on either bank specially in Motihari police-station.

Important communications affected.

Station-Court Road at Motihari was under water for 1 foot depth nearly, near the Motihari Zila School.

Turkaulia-Kesaria Road was badly damaged at several places between the 10th and 14th miles.

EARTHQUAKE.

The district has recently suffered from shocks of two severe earthquakes. The first earthquake occurred in 1833 and the second after a period of relative quiescence of a century in 1934. Details of damage of the first earthquake are not available. The earthquake of 1934 is comparatively recent and we have ample materials to the effect. In his revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran*, written in 1932 and published in 1938, Mr. Swanzy has given an account of the earthquake of 1934 in a separate chapter, from which we quote portions relevant for showing effects on agriculture in the district, due to this catastrophe.

" The epicentral tract stretching from Dhaka on the west to a point about 10 miles east of Madhuban on the east, included a small area only to the east of Dhaka in Champaran district. The slump area stretching from Purnea in the east to Sugauli on the west included the whole area east of a line drawn through Ghorasahan, Sugauli and Gobindganj.

" In this area sand was forced up through fissures and geysers, levels were changed, and water channels were to some extent blocked with sand. The damage to land was specially severe near the banks of rivers and lakes where the ground was so badly fissured that rebuilding was a serious problem.................." As a result of the sand survey completed after the earthquake in May 1934, Rs. 10,66,153 was distributed in loans and Rs. 44,199 as free grants. The map given in Mr. Brett's report shows that the damage was slight generally in police-stations Adapur, Chouradano, Ghorasahan and Gobindganj, average in the area to the east of Sugauli along the Sikrahna, and in police-stations Motihari, Dhaka, Peepra, Madhubani and Kessariya, and two comparatively small areas, one west of Peepra police-station and one in Dhaka and Madhuban police-stations, suffered severe damage.

This earthquake also did some good to the soil as will be found from another portion of Mr. Swanzy's account of the earthquake of 1934, quoted below :—

" It is interesting to find that the deposits of sand are now in 1937 reported to have benefited land with a clay and loam-soil except where the sand deposit was deep. Land of a sandy nature has certainly been injuriously affected by deep deposits, but the area of such land is small."

Communication was also seriously damaged which necessarily had its ill effects on agriculture but the damages were quickly repaired. The earthquake had effect on the general level of the country for which it was anticipated that floods may play havoc in the district and thus cause serious damages to agriculture. Mr. Swanzy mentions in his note : " After the earthquake it was feared that floods would cause immense damage owing to changes in the general level of the country and specially to waterways being choked. From Ramnagar to Ghorasahan the ground fell in level varying from 3 to 10 inches. At Motihari the drop had been of 18 inches.) This anticipation was to some extent justified. For in the flood of 1934 though the flood readings at Chainpatia were 2 feet less than in the flood of 1915 the levels of Motihari were slightly higher than in 1915. Since the earthquake the rivers and water courses have to a large extent scoured their beds in the three successive years' floods.

" In 1936 the flood at Chainpatia rose 6 inches above the 1915 level and in Motihari 9 inches above the level of that year. The earthquake therefore may be said to have left no permanent effect on the district in this respect." To this we can add the difficulties which had to be faced to dispose of sugarcane. The principal crop standing at the time of the earthquake was sugarcane. Since several of the factories were damaged, steps had to be taken to dispose of cane to the good account of cultivators. Loans by the Government at 2½ per cent were distributed to those who could work power-driven *khandsari* sugar plant. Bullock-driven mills were also obtained from far off places like the Punjab and distributed to turn out sugarcane into *gur*. A good quantity of *gur* could be turned out, which at the end of season sold at Rs. 3-4-0 a maund nearly double its former figure. Undamaged sugar mills were appealed through the Indian Sugar Mills' Association to increase their crush. But response to the appeal was disappointing. The railway offered the low rate of freight of one-tenth of a pie per maund per mile on cane. A Cane Marketing Board was established and the special freight rate was confined to canes handled by this body. This had to be done as agents of many sugar mills were found purchasing sugarcane from the needy cultivators at a very cheaper rate. But after the constitution of the Board, it became the sole selling agent for such canes for which there existed no agreement with the factories. The cane sold through the Board fetched 4 annas 3 pies per maund to the cultivators, a price not much below they would have obtained in the normal course. As a result of all this Champaran had been entirely cleared of cane, when the season came to an end in early May.

There has not been any other earthquake since 1934. The district is within the risk zone of earthquakes and an earthquake in the future is remote possibility.

HAILSTORM.

Severe hailstorm is not a normal feature but there are usually some hailstorms in the months of March-April.

Writing about the hailstorm in his revised *District Gazetteer* Mr. Swanzy mentions as follows :—

''Early in March 1931 the district suffered from a very severe hailstorm, which caused great damage to the *rabi* crops. The area affected consisted of a strip on the average about 10 miles wide through the centre of the district, viz., south Dhanaha thana, Jogaputti thana, the areas round Sirsia Factory, Bettiah, Lalsaraiya Factory, Sugauli, and along the Sikrahna to Lal Bakiya Ghat on the Motihari-Dhaka road ".

" The area most affected was that bordering the Sikrahna from Sugauli to Lal Bakiya Ghat. In this area the *bhadai* crop of 1930 had failed owing to flood and consequently owing to the slump in prices, money was very scarce and *raiyats* were relying on the *rabi* crop for their living. Again in 1931 the *bhadai* crop was largely destroyed by flood and the *mahajans* could not advance money to any large extent.

" The following measures of relief were, therefore, found necessary to remedy or alleviate distress. In the Sadar subdivision the District Distress Relief Committee was started in July, 1931 and gave gratuitous relief to 11,133 persons in 29 badly-affected villages. Subsequently the Marwari Relief Society took up the work about the third week of September and continued it till the middle of October in Sadar subdivision and till the middle of November in Bettiah subdivision. *Takavi* loans amounting to Rs. 21,502 had been advanced in the Sadar subdivision. The Bettiah State in the

Motihari Circle advanced Rs. 43,848 as seed loans in the Sadar subdivision. In addition the Bettiah Estate undertook seven relief works at a cost of Rs. 16,001 in the Sadar subdivision during the months of June and October.

"In the Bettiah subdivision gratuitous relief was given out in some three centres in Jogapatti thana and also in Dhanaha thana and Colonel Lees of Lal Saraiya gave out relief himself in some of the villages of his *elaka* partly from his own funds and partly from the funds of the District Distress Relief Committee. Rs. 4,630 was given out as *takavi* in the Bettiah subdivision and Rs. 33,450 by the Bettiah Estate as seed loan. The estate also undertook five relief works at a cost of Rs. 5,979 in the Bettiah subdivision. In addition to the above the Bettiah Estate has also granted suspension of rent in the areas in which seed loans have been granted."

No serious hailstorm has visited the district since 1931. However, light hailstorm caused some loss to the district in the years 1932-33, 1938-39 and 1939-40. But as none of these hailstorms was of serious nature, details are not mentioned here.

CHAPTER V.

INDUSTRIES.

HISTORICAL REFERENCES IN THE ANCIENT AND MEDIÆVAL LITERATURE.

The district of Champaran in the ancient and mediæval literature has been referred to mainly as the land of *tapovans* (hermitages) where *Rishis* (sages) lived and prayed. There does not appear to be any particular reference to this district so far as industries are concerned.

POSITION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES OF MINOR IMPORTANCE DURING THE EIGHTEENTH AND NINETEENTH CENTURIES.

During the eighteenth century there does not appear to have been any large or important industry in the district. Barring aside a negligible percentage, the people were entirely dependent on agriculture. They lived in villages dotted among their fields. The villagers grew their own crops, ground their own corn and built their own houses. Their cloth was woven by the village weaver, while the rough implements needed in agriculture were invariably made and repaired by the village smith and carpenter. The oil which they needed for day to day consumption was extracted from different varieties of oil-seeds by the Telis, a caste that mainly dealt in oil.

There was also a good sprinkling of Gareries or shepherds in the district who used to tend sheep and weave blankets. The district has had excellent pasturage from before and flocks of sheep are still reared within the district.

Gold washing in minute quantities from the Gandak river as well as from Panchnad, Harha, Shabsa and other rivers was also an industry of some importance and the Raja of Ramnagar used to collect every year gold of several thousand rupees. The Tharus were the gold washers.

Other industries of minor importance were mat-making, brass-ware and basket-making.

Poppy cultivation and opium trade was an important industry in Champaran. With the rest of Bihar, the district of Champaran was known widely for the cultivation of the finest variety of opium. Emperor Akbar, after his conquest of this region, found the opium traffic as a distinctive feature, though during the Mughal period there does not appear to be any attempt to encourage or restrict the cultivation of opium. The Governor of Bihar found neglecting his duties due to his addiction to *quknar* (opium-hemp) is mentioned in the *tuzuk*. Ralph Fitch, an Englishman, who travelled in the East from 1583—1591 A. D. and visited Agra, Benares, Patna is the first person to mention directly about Patna opium. He found Patna with a large trade in cotton, sugar and opium. The Abbe Raynal (*Hist. Philosoph. des deux Indes,* 1770, a work translated in 1777, 1. 424) says that "Patna is the most celebrated place in the world for the cultivation of opium. Besides what is carried into the inland parts there are annually 3,000 to 4,000 chests exported, each weighing 300 lbs." Alexander Hamilton in 1727 speaks of the chiefs of Calient vending from 500 to 1,000 chests of Bengal opium yearly.

The Britishers inherited the legacy of the monopoly in opium trade from the Mughals. Opium was allowed to be cultivated by selected *raiyats* only as a source of revenue. An annual revenue or peshcush was demanded in advance. But this legalized local monopoly of purchase appears to have died out during the period of confusion between 1739 and 1757.

Hunter mentions in his '*Statistical Account of Champaran*' that "In 1773 the monopoly of providing opium in Champaran was granted to one Mir Mannir, who had previously been employed by the Patna Board; he engaged to answer for any outstanding balances and to deliver opium at Rs. 320, or £ 32, per maund. In 1785 the monopoly was put up at auction to the highest bidder and in 1789 again resumed by Government. In 1783 the price paid to ryats was Rs. 1-14 per seer (1 *s.* 10½ *d.* per lb.), and it was optional with them to grow the plant or not."

*The following table shows the area cultivated, the *damdetta* produce, and the average yield per opium *bigha* for the eleven years, 1863—1874 :—

**Seasons and Subdivisions.	Net quantity of land cultivated after deducting failures.			*Damdetta* produce at 80 *tola* weight.				Average produce per *bigha*.		
	Bigha	Katha	Dhur	Md.	Sr.	Ch.	K.	Sr.	Ch.	K.
1863-64										
Motihari ..	73,040	3	0	7,957	20	11	3	4	5	3
Bettiah ..	42,711	14	0	5,566	12	13	0	5	3	2
1864-65										
Motihari ..	64,875	13	0	5,246	7	5	3	3	3	3
Bettiah ..	39,575	11	0	4,020	26	6	3	4	1	0

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* *Vide Hunter's Statistical Account of Champaran* (1875), p. 271.

** Subdivisions here probably mean sub-agencies as there were two sub-agencies at Motihari and Bettiah, each under the supervision of a Sub-Deputy Opium Agent, assisted by an Assistant Opium Agent.

Seasons and Subdivisions.	Net quantity of land cultivated after deducting failures.			*Damdetta* produce at 80 *tola* weight.				Average produce per *bigha*.		
	Bigha	Katha	Dhur	Md.	Sr.	Ch.	K.	Sr.	Ch.	K.
1865-66										
Motihari ..	62,538	14	0	4,701	4	15	3	3	0	0
Bettiah ..	38,455	14	0	4,123	2	13	1	4	4	2
1866-67										
Motihari .	68,453	17	0	5,989	1	15	1	3	8	0
Bettiah ..	43,702	11	0	4,936	37	12	1	4	8	1
1867-68										
Motihari ..	73,152	0	0	6,262	37	7	1	3	6	3
Bettiah ..	45,443	0	0	4,594	38	8	1	4	0	3
1868-69										
Motihari ..	65,215	3	0	3,923	36	6	3	2	13	2
Bettiah ..	47,757	11	0	4,085	15	12	2	3	6	3
1869-70										
Motihari ..	71,649	13	0	6,272	13	5	0	3	8	0
Bettiah .	49,595	11	0	4,980	35	9	1	4	0	1
1870-71										
Motihari ..	77,289	0	0	5,288	39	3	2	2	11	3
Bettiah ..	49,905	0	0	3,660	35	6	3	2	15	0
1871-72										
Motihari ..	78,344	0	0	6,131	27	10	0	3	2	0
Bettiah ..	50,588	0	0	4,332	0	13	3	3	6	3
1872-73										
Motihari ..	68,784	0	0	3,235	39	8	0	1	14	0
Bettiah ..	49,182	0	0	3,066	35	11	3	2	8	0
1873-74										
Motihari ..	50,666	0	6	4,353	19	1	1	3	7	0
Bettiah ..	42,803	0	0	3,921	10	14	3	3	10	3

Within the period of six months ending in February, 1876, a total of 4,643 maunds of poppy-seed was exported from Champaran through the river traffic.

As a monopoly trade, opium was a good source of revenue. Mr. R. C. Dutt, I.C.S., C.I.E., in his "*The Economic History of India in the Victorian Age*" (p. 288), has quoted from the evidence before the Commons' Committee, 1832 (Part I, p. 26) to the spirit of the Britishers working behind the opium trade.

"The manufacture of opium and salt" said Halt Mackenzie, who was one of the principal witnesses examined by the Commons' Committee in 1832, "is conducted with a view to revenue, not trade. My opinion is that, of the suggested changes with regard to those articles, there is none that would not involve a large loss of revenue. In the salt department, I do not think we could by means of an excise, collect the same amount of net revenue as is yielded by the public sales..............

"From that source also (opium) they derive a very large revenue, the excess of the sale prices beyond the first cost constituting such a tax as I would think it hopeless to get by any other device; and though, commercially speaking there are strong objections to the system, yet we must set against the necessity of the revenue and my belief is that the same amount of revenue cannot be otherwise got."

The total amount involved in the exports from India from 1849 to 1877 is quoted below from Mr. Romesh Dutta's book, viz., "*The Economic History of India in the Victorian Age*" :—

Year.	Opium.
	£
1849	5,772,526
1850	5,973,395
1851	5,459,135
1852	6,515,214
1853	7,034,075
1854	6,437,098
1855	6,231,278
1856	6,200,871
1857	7,050,630
1858	9,106,635
1859	10,827,642
1860	9,054,394
1861	10,184,713
1862	10,553,912
1863	12,494,128
1864	10,756,093

Year.	Opium.
	£
1865	9,911,804
1866	11,122,746
1867	10,431,703
1868	12,330,799
1869	10,695,654
1870	11,693,330
1871	10,783,863
1872	13,365,228
1873	11,426,280
1874	11,341,857
1875	11,956,972
1876	11,148,426
1877	12,404,748

The figure for net revenue for the last decade of the nineteenth century is available but the author says that "the revenue derived from opium declined within the last ten years of the century while the salt revenue showed rather an increase."

Net Revenue in rupees.

Year.	Opium.
	Rs.
1890-91	5,69,83,850
1891-92	6,15,05,670
1892-93	6,39,06,840
1893-94	4,75,09,640
1894-95	5,70,76,520
1895-96	5,05,49,810
1896-97	3,92,25,460
1897-98	2,79,06,550
1898-99	3,35,20,400
1899-1900	4,01,22,420

All the above quoted figures are for India as a whole. But Bihar had been the main area for poppy cultivation and Champaran in Bihar had the maximum acreage. Poppy was a good competitor for both indigo and sugar cultivation. The Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations in Champaran during 1892—1899, published in 1900, mentions that "the other single non-food crop of great importance and value is opium, occupying 3.7 per cent of the net cropped area. Wheat among the food crops, and opium among non-food, are the two great rivals of indigo.........." A comparative statistics noted from the same Report, in respect of the area under opium cultivation in Champaran and neighbouring districts would show the importance of poppy cultivation in Champaran :—

Serial no.	Name of district.	Area (in acres).	Percentage to net cropped area.
1.	Champaran	53,594	3.7
2.	Muzaffarpur	12,179	0.8
3.	Gorakhpur	16,555	0.8
4.	Azimgarh	6,469	0.8
5.	Ballia	4,866	0.9
6.	Gaya	6,063	2.5
7.	North Monghyr ..	1	..

The cultivated area was distributed throughout the district. Though the district percentage was 3.7, it was largely exceeded in Adapur, Dhaka, Gobindganj and Motihari where the crop was artificially irrigated from wells. Bettia and Kesaria only reached the district average, while in Bagaha, Shikarpur and Madhubani it was much below so that the percentage of area under opium was two and a half times greater in the Sadar than in the Bettiah subdivision—from the *Final Report on the Survey and Settlement Operations during* 1892–1899 (published in 1900) the following statement of the area and percentage of the cultivated area under opium crop thana by thana is quoted below :—

Serial no.	Name of thana.	Area (in acres).	Percentage to net cropped area.
1.	Bagaha	2,262	1.1
2.	Shikarpur	2,950	1.2
3.	Bettia	8,605	3.5
	Subdivisional figures ..	13,817	2.0
4.	Adapur	7,755	6.4
5.	Dhaka	10,960	6.2
6.	Motihari	6,722	5.1
7.	Gobindganj	8,311	6.5
8.	Kesaria	4,989	3.6
9.	Madhuban	1,040	1.7
	Sadar subdivisional figure	39,777	5.2
	District figures ..	53,594	3.7

This wide cultivation of opium, however, did not continue for long. It appears to have declined at a rapid speed for there is no reference about poppy cultivation in the Report on the Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations published only 23 years after the first Report.

Numerous factors have been responsible for this decline. A study of the old letters available in the Champaran Record Room would show that with the cultivation of opium numerous abuses had crept in which harassed the *ryots* of opium to the most and ultimately destroyed the cultivation altogether. Romesh Dutt, Hunter, Sir George Watt and others have all commented severely upon the way the management of the opium cultivation was done. A letter in Duncan Records by A. Shakespear, Vol. II (1873), shows in detail the different reasons for the decline of the opium trade. Throughout the second half of the eighteenth century opium had both great demand and gross neglect due to political conditions within and without India. Inside India the political troubles with the Nawabs of Bengal naturally upset the opium trade as river transport was often disturbed. Also outside India European wars caused similar decline in the opium trade. Nevertheless, with stability of political peace in India under the British rule the trade was monopolised by the Government and poppy cultivation reached a new peak. That continued for the first half of the nineteenth century and opium trade was extensively carried into four Eastern countries, especially with China. To maintain their source of great profit and large revenue the European traders of opium in India forced upon China a war on that plea, viz., the Opium War. By this war the unpopularity of opium trade as demoralising the human character became prominent. China began to grow her own opium. The agents of the Government harassed the *ryots* to cultivate poppy irrespective of their financial gain, extracted bribes from the cultivators through the use of force while the Zamindars and Chowdries started to harass the cultivators. But all this hastened the end of poppy cultivation.

L. S. S. O'Malley's *Gazetteer* of *Champaran* (1907) has the following, regarding the Government organisation for opium control :—

" For the administration of the Opium Department the district was formerly divided into two sub-agencies, Motihari and Bettiah, each under the supervision of a Sub-Deputy Opium Agent, assisted by an Assistant Opium Agent; but owing to the reduction of the area under poppy cultivation there, two charges were amalgamated in 1907. Under the provision of Act XIII of 1857, the Collector is *ex-officio* Deputy Opium Agent, but in practice he takes no part in the administration of the Department."

There were also provisions for station guards for Opium Department as would be evident from letter no. 245, dated the 31st January

1846, from the Under-Secretary to Government of Bengal, to Captain I. C. Elwall. There were also Opium Kotees in Champaran along with other districts in Bihar. Opium trade encouraged crimes. There are references in the old correspondences that Motihari town used to have a lot of thefts and other like crimes due to the large collection of opium *ryots* in the town.

SUGAR INDUSTRY FROM THE CLOSING YEARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY TILL THE END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century or in the early years of the nineteenth century manufacture of sugar is said to have been introduced into the district by immigrants from Azamgarh and Gorakhpur and in the first half of the nineteenth century it was the most important industry in Champaran. There were several refineries and *golas* of sugar in the district. Several Europeans were very much interested in the manufacture of sugar and as a matter of fact, many of the European indigo concerns were originally started as sugar factories, a number of which worked by steam being scattered through several *parganas*. In an extract from the Commercial General letter from the Court of Directors, dated the 6th May 1791, preserved in Muzaffarpur Record Room, it has been mentioned that for the purpose of the expansion of the sugar cultivation the Government was actuated by the same policy which had been adopted for indigo cultivation. For this purpose the East India Company made an agreement with John Paterson, a noted conversant in the culture and management of the same article in the West Indies. According to the terms of the agreement, the Company was to afford all facilities to him. A tract of 6,000 *bighas* of land of 100 cubits each, in such part or parts of Bengal and Bihar as may be the most suitable for sugarcane was to be leased to him for 12 years to commence from the 1st January, 1792. Such lands were to be applied only for the sugar cultivation. The soil of Champaran district being found suitable was utilised for the cultivation of sugarcane. The crop being a cash crop or particularly suited to Champaran soil became an important crop and sugar manufacture by indigenous method had quickly spread.

The sugar manufactured used to be transported by boats and road to places like Singhia and Lalgunj in Muzaffarpur district and Chupra and Patna by boat. Calcutta was the main centre where the bulk of the sugar ultimately found its way.

There were two main reasons for the decline of the industry till the beginning of the present century. The first was the difficulty of transport and the higher prices obtained for indigo for the same labour and land. Transportation of machinery for sugar manufacture from the far distant places to the district was a very costly affair and an up-hill task, for there was not much of railway communication. Transportation of manufactured sugar from the district to the chief consuming centres like Calcutta was equally difficult and costly. In many cases sugar could not be reached to the place of destination before the rains set in and this setting in of rains was a great danger to sugar in transit and proved fatal for several manufacturing concerns. Sugar industry gave way to the indigo but continued to be manufactured on a very small scale on the indigenous method till the end of the nineteenth century. Detailed account of the sugar industry is given later in this chapter. It may be mentioned that sugar manufacture was more or less carried with steam-power or manual labour till the end of the nineteenth century. But processes for cleansing the sugar and for graining had been evolved even then.

INDIGO INDUSTRY FROM THE DATE OF INTRODUCTION IN THE DISTRICT TILL IT DECLINED.

Cultivation of indigo came in soon after sugar industry was introduced. Indigo industry had prosperous days from about the middle of the nineteenth century to the beginning of the present century and was able to almost push out sugarcane and manufacture of sugar for some decades. As the indigo industry almost ruled the economy of the district for decades some details are given although indigo has completely died out now.

The pioneer of the indigo industry in Bihar was Francois Grand, Collector of Tirhut (Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga) in the years 1782—1785. He has left his own record that he introduced the manufacture of indigo on the European methods and had encouraged the establishment of indigo works and plantations and erected three at his own expense.

Grand came to grief and was discharged by Lord Cornwallis for running the indigo concerns on his own, nevertheless his contribution to indigo industry was of a pioneer nature.

In this connection a summary of a letter, dated the 7th August 1792, to R. Bathurst, Collector of Tirhoot, is of interest. It mentions that in pursuance of an engagement for the cultivation of indigo weed the *raiyats* were paid 3 *sicca* rupees for cultivation and 3 rupees for land rents during *Assar* crop sown in June and July, provided the land was retained in indigo for the whole *Fussily* year. But if the field was relinquished in the month of *Cartic* the indigo contractor paid only annas ten and the remaining six annas was paid by the *raiyats* to the proprietors. For the *Falgunee* crop shown in March Rs. 1-8-0 was paid per *bigha* for rent for cultivation if the weed was only once cut, and Re. 1-2-0 as rent, if relinquished at that time.*

In his book "*History of Bihar*" Mr. Minden Wilson (1907) has mentioned that T. S. and Co. built an indigo factory at Rajpur in 1801. Mr. Jaffry Finch, who held a share with a Bengali gentleman was the sponsor. Wilson has mentioned that the *mokarrari sottah* for the land on which the factory was built was dated the 2nd October, 1807, but from the wording of the document it was evident that the factory itself was built some five or six years before, that is, in 1801.

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* *See* Muzaffarpur Old Records published by Gazetteer Revision Section (1959).

From the old records it would appear that in 1807 the second factory to follow western methods of manufacture was founded at Seerha. Shortly afterwards, the Turkullia concern was started by Mr. Henry Hill. According to Minden Wilson, Mr. Hill was at Rajpur from 1810 to 1814 and in 1818 purchased Burrah, Rajpur and Motihari concerns. From this time the cultivation of indigo steadily extended. The old records show that in 1830 the Collector was keen to build more roads for the development of the country and reported that in this Government would get the assistance of the indigo planters who were well spread. Although Europeans had to take out licenses and permissions from the Governor-General in Council through the Board of Revenue to start indigo concerns it appears they were liberally encouraged to do so and helped to acquire lands for this purpose. About 1850 the high prices obtained for indigo for export dealt a final blow at sugar industry. The cultivation of sugar was replaced by indigo, and the sugar factories were slowly converted into indigo concerns. Some of the other indigo concerns of the nineteenth century were at Peepra (originally a Dutch factory but in 1835—1838 was one of a group belonging to Major Noel and Co.), Jagoulia (1848), Lohereah (1859), Hardea (1862), Moorla (1864), Pursa (sometime in the sixties), Mohowah (1881), Gowandrah (1882), Byreah (1884), Kooriah (1884), Russelpore (1891), Bagaha, etc.*

Systems of cultivation.

The following is a description of the systems of indigo cultivation which were followed in Champaran during the flourishing days of the industry. The two systems were *Ziraat,* i.e., direct cultivation by means of hired servants on landlords' *zirat* (more correctly landlord's *bakasht* land) and *asamiwar* or cultivation through tenants of the factory (*asami*). A third system, which was uncommon in Champaran, was *khuski* or cultivation by means of agreements with outside *raiyats*. Roughly, one-third of the cultivation was carried on under the *zirat* system and two-thirds under the *asamiwar* system.

Ziraat.—The term *Ziraat* has been incorrectly applied to any land in the direct occupation of a factory, and not only to land held by a proprietor or superior tenure-holder. *Ziraat* indigo land was cultivated by the factory at its own expense and with hired labour. Over one-fourth of the area under indigo was of this class, and owing to its careful cultivation returned the best profits.

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* *See* Muzaffarpur Old Records by P. C. Roy Choudhury (Gazetteer Revision Section, Revenue, Bihar).

Asamiwar.—When the system of *asamiwar* cultivation was followed the indigo was grown by the factory tenants, under the direction of the factory's servants, at fixed rates per *bigha.* Generally documents called *sattas* were executed, the *raiyat* receiving an advance and binding himself to grow indigo on a certain specified portion of his holding, and to pay damage if he should fail to carry out his contract. All the expenses of cultivation were paid by the *raiyat,* but the seed was given by the factory, which also cut and carted away the indigo, the *raiyat* being paid for the latter at fixed rates. When the contracts (*sattas*) were executed, the cultivators generally agreed for a term of years to grow indigo on 3 *cottahs* per *bigha* of their holdings. This was sometimes called the *tinkathia* system, but must be distinguished from the system, under which the planters appropriated 3 *cottahs* per *bigha* out of the *raiyat's* holding, giving him in return nothing beyond a proportionate reduction of rent.

Badlain or exchange was prominent characteristic of the *asamiwar* system. Lands, after being cropped three and four years successively with indigo, require to be sown with grain and other surface root crops. Indigo, being a plant with a deep root, forms an excellent rotation crop with them, but successive crops of indigo usually exhaust the soil unless it is regularly manured. Hence it seemed necessary to arrange for an exchange of land, and *badlain* was a practice universally followed.

Khuski.—Agreements executed by *raiyats* who were not the tenants of the factory, were called *khuski,* as the cultivators voluntarily agreed to grow indigo. In this case the factory supplied the seed and paid for the crop when delivered, at privileged rates: it sometimes also gave an advance to the cultivators at a light rate of interest. The system was very rarely found in Champaran, as, if it is to pay, indigo requires selected lands, carefully cultivated and rotated in an intelligent system; the rate of remuneration has to be high in order to induce the outside *raiyat* to grow indigo: and in Champaran factories had such extensive tenure-holding rights that they could generally make better terms with their own *raiyats,* and had no need to enlist the service of cultivators holding land in other estates.

Kurtauli.—Under the *kurtauli* system (sometimes also called the *shikmi* system) the factory took a sub-lease from a *raiyat* and raised the indigo with its own labour, the rent agreed on being deducted from the rent due from the *raiyat* to the factory in its capacity as landlord. The factory was, in short, a mere under-*raiyat.* *Kurtauli* leases were rare in Champaran and appear to have been more common in Motihari thana than elsewhere.

Hiring of carts.—An important feature in indigo cultivation was the hiring of carts, which was generally affected by means of agreement as it is imperative that the indigo plant should be cut and brought into the factory as soon as it is ripe. In consideration of an advance, the cart-owner agreed to place his cart for a term of years at the disposal of the factory, and in return received a fixed rate of payment slightly below the ordinary rate.

Subsequent History.

The industry was seriously threatened in 1867, when there was a strong demonstration against the cultivation of indigo, accompanied, in some instances, by acts of violence. The causes of dissatisfaction on the part of the *raiyats* were several. They objected to the unusual trouble and hard labour required for the successful production of the indigo plant, and felt that the rates being paid for its cultivation did not give adequate remuneration for the labour involved. It was known that enormous profits were made from indigo by export abroad and they had a natural desire to obtain a large share of them, while the high prices of food had raised the profits obtained from the cultivation of foodgrain and therefore made indigo still more unpopular than before. Further, they resented the harassment of the factory servants, who besides committing various acts of oppression, were alleged to be in the habit of taking a large percentage of the payments made to the *raiyats* as their own perquisites under the general name of *dasturi*. In addition to their grievances, there was an absence, on the part of the managers of factories, of that sympathy with the *raiyats* which used formerly to be displayed by the old proprietor-planters, who paid more attention to the well-being of their tenantry. By this time the proprietors had started leaving the factories to youngsters.

The opposition of the *raiyats* showed itself in a general refusal to sow indigo, and in some cases in the forcible appropriation for other crops of the lands already prepared for indigo. The first instance of such proceedings occurred in a village called Jaukatia, the *raiyats* of which, in defiance of the contract into which they had entered with the Lalsaraiya factory, sowed their lands with cold weather crops; and this example was rapidly followed by other villagers. The planters had very considerable interests at stake, and the then administration thought that it was necessary that they should receive prompt and final decisions on their complaints. Government, at their request, established a small cause court at Motihari, with jurisdiction over the entire district of Champaran, for the trial of all cases of breach of contract between them and the *raiyats*. This court was composed of two judges, the one a covenanted civil servant, usually a European, and the other an Indian gentleman and these two officers were directed to sit together for the trial of all suits connected with the indigo question. This measure was naturally interpreted that Government would not allow the leases to be abrogated and the question of the equity or legality of the contract would not be entered into. The result was naturally very favourable to the European planters. Though few suits were instituted, the mere knowledge that such a court was at hand to enforce promptly the payment of damages for breach of contracts was sufficient to deter the *raiyats* from breaking them. Within nine weeks of the establishment of the court, the Lieutenant-Governor was able to put an end to its special constitution, leaving the Indian Judge only to preside over it. It may be mentioned here that the European planters at that time were almost at one with the British administration and they had even been given concession of drawing money on their own signatures from the Government Treasury to be repaid when indigo would be sold.

But the spirit of unrest among the Indian cultivators could not be crushed. It was a general unrest which was also noticed in parts of Bengal. The disputes between the *raiyats* and planters had at one time threatened to become very serious. The local officers almost unanimously reported that the cultivation of indigo had become very unpopular, and that there was not a single *raiyat* who would not abandon the cultivation if he could; and this state of things was ascribed as much to the insufficiency of the remuneration which the *raiyats* received, as to the exactions, oppression, and annoyance to which they were exposed at the hands of the factory servants. Government was satisfied that the time had passed when planters could hope to carry on an indigo concern profitably by forcing on the *raiyats* a cultivation and labour which were to them unprofitable; and it was clear that, in the altered circumstances of the time, they must be prepared either to close their factories, or to give to the *raiyats,* in some shape or other, remuneration which should make it worth their while to grow indigo. This necessity was recognised by the general body of planters, and they yielded to the pressure, raising the rate of remuneration from Rs. 7-8-0 to Rs. 12 per *bigha.*

Many European indigo planters had endeavoured to lay much of the blame of torture to the indigo *raiyats* on the Zemindars of Champaran. But a different story is given out by a letter no. 165, Champaran, dated the 13th May 1840, from G. D. Wilkins, Joint Magistrate, to G. Gough, Officiating Sessions Judge of Saran. It mentions about the circular letter of Sudder Nizamut Adawlut no. 3166, dated the 22nd November 1839, which required the Magistrates not to punish the European British subjects for contempt of court under the regulation there in force. The Magistrate wanted a classification as how to enforce the meaning of section 5, Regulation VI of 1823, explained in construction no. 385, that is to enter a penalty bond of Rs. 50 not to plough up an *assami's* crop for the purpose of forcibly replacing it with his own indigo. The Magistrate also draws the attention to the fact that the extension of indigo cultivation was entirely in the hands of Europeans who were proved to do injustice to the *assamies* in cultivating indigo.

It was believed that this movement among the *raiyats* was instigated by certain persons who had their own interests to serve; and this belief appeared to be borne out by the fact that the open opposition to the planters was mainly confined to the estates of the Maharaja of Bettiah. The management of the Bettiah Estate by an English gentleman was said to have given rise to much dissatisfaction among the influential natives of the Raja's household, whose opportunities of enriching themselves at the expense of the Raja had been restricted thereby; and the combination among the *raiyats* was said to have been engineered by them, mainly with the object of involving the manager of the estate in difficulties so that the Raja, disgusted with the management, might allow his affairs to revert to their former neglected condition.

Ten years later the financial embarassment of the same estate resulted in the indigo industry being placed on a firmer footing. Hitherto the planters had been able only to secure temporary leases of land, but circumstances now arose which gave them a more permanent and secure hold on the soil. By 1876 the Bettiah Raj, owing to the extravagance of the Maharaja and the mismanagement of his employees had become heavily involved in debt; and, as a means of extricating it from its difficulties, a European Manager, Mr. T. Gibbon, was appointed. One of the first steps of the new Manager was to ensure financial equilibrium, and the Gulliland House consented to float a sterling loan of nearly Rs. 95 lakhs, on the sole condition of substantial European security. To satisfy this condition and cover the interest on the loan, permanent leases of villages were granted to indigo planters, and the indigo industry was thus placed in the hands of the European planters on a secure basis. Permanent rights in the land being assured, the cultivation of indigo was widely extended by them until by the end of the nineteenth century no less than 21 factories, with 48 outworks, had been established, while the area under indigo was 95.970 acres or 6.6 per cent of the cultivated area.

Landed Interests.

In the Settlement Report of 1899 it is stated that the indigo concerns exercised the rights of landlords in nearly half of the district, either as proprietors or tenure-holders. and that the indigo industry owed the strength of its position in this district to the fact that the planters possessed a landlord's interest in so large an area; not the least noticeable results of which were that most of their indigo being grown on land of which they were the landlords, they were relieved from the necessity of haggling with petty proprietors and cultivators, to which their less fortunate fellow planters had to submit in Saran and Tirhut.

The proportion of land held by planters as proprietors was inconsiderable, amounting to only ½ per cent in the whole district. Generally speaking, the interest of the indigo concerns in the land was mainly that of tenure-holders, but in thanas Bettiah, Motihari, Gobindganj and Kesariya, where the proportion of land held on permanent tenure varied 23 to 45 per cent, it was practically as secure as a proprietary right.

Regarding the advantages and disadvantages of indigo cultivation, the following remarks are quoted from the Settlement Report of Mr. (later Sir Charles) Stevenson Moore, with slight condensation :—

" My conclusions are that the indigo industry in relation to Government and the administration, in relation to land-owners, and in relation to labourers, confers very decided benefits on the district but that in relation to cultivators its advantages are very much more questionable. In Champaran the utility of the indigo factory is largely connected with the management of the Bettiah Raj. It has been seen that it was their security which rendered possible the raising of the Bettiah sterling loan. Further, while the factories, to the best of my knowledge, are good and considerate landlords to their *raiyats,* they increase the value of property they supervise by dint of good management, and pay up their rents with punctuality. The Bettiah Raj has not the organisation requisite for the efficient management of all its estates direct. That, relying on indigo and not on *zamindari* for their profits, indigo factories have been available to share with it the responsibility of management, at a very slender rate of remuneration, has proved a decided advantage to that estate.

" The benefits of the indigo industry to the labouring population are still more marked, for these are the classes in greatest need of support. The average number of labourers employed is high and more than half the labour is employed in the cold weather months. when these classes are most liable to destitution. It is true that the factory rates of labour are somewhat lower than those ordinarily paid, and it is often urged that factories have had a tendency to keep down labour rates. A large employer of labour naturally gets it cheaper than the man who employs a single cooly, and if factories have attempted to keep down rates, they have not invariably succeeded, as the rates differ considerably in different tracts.

" In relation to the agriculturists, its merits are more questionable. But here again, so far as *raiyats* not called upon to grow indigo are concerned, an indigo factory, as landlord, is a very decided advantage. The indigo concerns' best interests centre in maintaining stability of rents, and what is of more importance, this truth is generally both recognised by them and acted upon. Again, non-indigo *raiyats* who are tenants of factories have their accounts kept well and accurately, are given proper receipts, are not called on for additional demands to meet domestic ceremonies so common in native estates and are protected and helped when they fall into difficulties. Pecuniarily, a cultivator loses per acre by growing indigo. This deficiency may or may not be made by other advantages, but these are less tangible and he does not appreciate them at the full value. He finds that if he had grown another crop, he would have made more money. He forgets that he received an advance when he required it that the existence of indigo gives him more profits from his cart than he would otherwise obtain; and that his rent, had the village been leased to a native *thikadar* instead of to an indigo planter, would probably have been more onerous.

"The fact remains that the *raiyats*, on the whole, do not like indigo, though I do not think they possess very active sentiments on the subject, their attitude being one of passive acquiescence. Again the system of accounts is open to the objection that it tends to check independence of thought and action. The accounts for rents, advances and indigo are all mixed up together, and though kept no doubt well and accurately, are incomprehensible to the ordinary uneducated mind. Finally the system of exchange (*badlain*) raises apprehension in the *raiyat's* mind that his tenant right will be interfered with. His tenant right is, as a rule, preserved unimpaired, and the record-of-rights will afford him full protection. Moreover, indigo as a rotation crop for food grains, distinctly benefits the land. But a *raiyat* may be asked to give, in *badlain* for indigo, a plot which he has liberally manured and carefully tilled in anticipation of fat profits to be realised from some other crop. Whatever the cause, the fact remains that the *badlain* system is not generally liked. My general conclusions then are that the cultivators who grow indigo on agreement receive little advantage from it, and in their own opinion the crop is generally believed to be pecuniarily disadvantageous; that on the other hand, only two-thirds of the indigo cultivation is of this nature, that, is today only 4 per cent of the cultivated area in the district; and that to be set against the real and imaginary disadvantages to a comparatively small body of *raiyats* are the great and material benefits that accrue to the administration, to landlords and to labourers from the presence in the district of the indigo concerns and their industry."

Indigo factories were more common in the headquarters subdivision and less common in the northern thanas, which consists mainly of rice lands unsuitable for the growth of indigo. The following is a list of the indigo factories at work in the district at the end of the nineteenth century :—

Motihari Subdivision.

Factories.	Sub-Factories.
Bara	Gaundra. Jugaulia. Mahuawa. Rasulpur.

Factories.	Sub-Factories.
Belwa	Chailaha.
Motihari	Haraj. Mirpur. Purnahia. Sugaon.
Nawada	Parsauni.
Padumker	..
Pipra	Daini Math. Dhekaha. Dobwalia. Madhuban.
Rajpur	Hussaini. Jamunapur. Pakri.
Siraha	Parewa.
Telhara	..
Tetaria	Bala.
Turkaulia	Barharwa. Gahiri (Bettiah subdivision). Khairwa (Bettiah subdivision). Makhwa. Olaha. Sakhwa. Tejpurwa.

Bettiah Subdivision.

Factories.	Sub-Factories.
Bairia	Nautan.
Kuria	Lalgarh.
Lalsaraiya	Farwa. Madhopur. Rajghat.
Malahia	Sirsia.
Parsa	Harpur.
Sathi	..

From 1900 onward.

From about 1900 the industry began to suffer from the competition of the synthetic indigo in Europe. The rise in prices of foodgrains encouraged the cultivation of more food crops in the district. The artificial dye slashed down the price of the natural dye which fell from Rs. 232 per factory maund to Rs. 130 in 1912-13. The area under indigo cultivation naturally decreased and the history of the industry gradually merged into the more general history of relations between landlords and tenants. In 1900 the *tinkathia* system prevailed as described above. In the non-indigo concerns the *raiyats* paid to their immediate landlords various *abwabs* with a general incidence of about Rs. 3 per *bigha;* it should be remembered that these non-indigo concerns were mostly in the north of the district, where the large *bigha* is prevalent. The indigo concerns, therefore, began to decrease the area under cultivation and to levy compensation from the tenants for releasing them from the obligation of cultivation of indigo under the *tinkathia* system. It is clear from contemporary records that the words *hunda* and *tinkathia* were used to indicate compensations of this kind. This coincided with the gradual awakening of the tenantry to the doubtful legality of these additional considerations. Complaints were received but led to no improvement, as the tenants exaggerated their grievances. At this period the reduction of opium cultivation occasioned considerable loss to the *raiyats* and they were all the more ready to revolt against the existing system. The bad feeling increased until widespread disturbances broke out in 1907-1908. A noticeable event of this year was the murder of Mr. Bloomfield, Manager of the Telhara Concern which was the outcome not of any of the larger questions at issue, but of an isolated case in which the Manager refused to sanction the transfer of holdings.

The Sathi Disturbances.

From early in the year 1907 there was a general feeling of uneasiness in the Sathi *dehat*. Continual meetings of the Muhammadan *raiyats* were held under the guidance of one Sheikh Gulab. Acts of violence were committed on factory servants by *raiyats* who refused to labour for the factory after having received advances. Convictions were obtained, but reversed on appeal. Arson followed and most significant of all, the sowing down of the *raiyats'* own crops in the *tinkathia* field set aside for indigo. More convictions were set aside by the appellate court, and the prestige of the recusant party was enhanced.* A common fund was raised for contesting cases and petitions were put in against the factory specifying—

(1) that *hurja* or damages for not growing indigo was being taken although no *sattas* had been executed;
(2) that other illegal cesses were taken by the *amla*; and
(3) that the services of labour and cartmen were not paid for.

The factory shut off the supply of water through the *pains* which it had constructed, and there followed thefts of water and prosecutions on this account. Some of the leading *raiyats,* Sheikh Gulab and others, were made special constables. They refused to act, and were convicted under the Police Act. The High Court set aside the conviction in March, 1908. The status of the tenants in Champaran had been reduced to such an extent that he could not walk with an umbrella opened within a mile of the *kothi* of an

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* *See* "Gandhiji's First Struggle in India" by P. C. Roy Choudhury (Navajivan Trust, Ahmadabad).

European planter. Meanwhile the tenants had petitioned the Lieutenant-Governor. An enquiry by the Subdivisional Officer and the Collector followed and the *raiyats* displayed their grievances in full. In February and March, 1908, *raiyats* disputed with the factory the possession of the oats and other crops grown in the *tinkathia* land and thousands of cases were instituted. In sympathy with these disturbances meanwhile the *raiyats* of the Bhasurari factory, which held villages in *thika* lease under the Ramnagar Estate, petitioned against their landlord and complained of illegal exactions. The upshot of the Sathi disturbances was agreements that whatever crops in the *tinkathia* land were grown from factory seed should be taken by the factory; while the *raiyats* should take the crops grown from seed supplied by themselves, and that such *raiyats* as did not wish to grow indigo or oats on the *tinkathia* system, should pay for their irrigation from the *pains* at the rate of Rs. 3 for every *bigha* of their holding instead of the previous nominal rate of 1½ annas, and should execute agreements to this effect. The registration of these *pains* as improvement was in progress when the more serious disturbances of 1908-09 broke out, and temporarily put a stop to the work. When conditions were settled again, the *raiyats* quietly executed agreements or *sattas*.

The Bettiah Disturbance.

The general spirit of uneasiness continued through the summer of 1908 and at the Bettiah *mela,* a general feeling of dissatisfaction was expressed against the whole *tinkathia* system, and the *raiyats* more or less agreed to take the law into their own hands, and break the system once for all. An outbreak of violence started in the area of Parsa Factory and spread to the Mallahia, Bairia and Kuria areas. Military police was employed to preserve order. Fifty-seven criminal cases were instituted and 266 people were convicted of acts of violence. The disturbances were thus quelled in November, 1908. Mr. Gourlay, who was then Director of Agriculture and had at one time been Subdivisional Officer in Bettiah, was deputed to make an official enquiry which he completed in December and January. His report was submitted in April, 1909. The fact that Gourlay's report was never published and remained a secret document supports the theory that Gourlay had come to conclusions against the planters. Gourlay made a very detailed enquiry and returned to the headquarters with a few packing boxes. He used to point out the packing boxes and mentioned that they contained the best evidence that he could collect. At a later stage he opened the packing boxes and showed the clods of earth which he had picked up from the *raiyats'* lands containing both *rabi* and indigo plants. What he wanted to show was that *raiyats* were forced to put indigo plants on the lands they had earmarked for *rabi.* But Gourlay's report had some effect. After informal discussions between Government and members of the Planters' Association certain changes were made in the existing system, the chief items being—

(1) an increase of the price per acre paid for indigo cultivation to the *raiyats* from Rs. 12 to Rs. 13;

(2) the introduction of a by-law whereby the area to be taken from the *raiyat* each year was reduced from 3 *cottahs* to 2 *cottahs* in the *bigha.*

These, however, were not fully ratified by the planters, for in the memorandum of the Planters' Association (1910) it is mentioned that the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal bringing the deliberations of the conference of the Planters' Association to a close in Darjeeling in 1910 said that "confidence has been reposed in the planters on the present occasion because they have always respected every confidence reposed in them in the past".*

The agitation subsided to some extent more because of the extensive police arrangements and the wide-scale arrests and even burning down of some houses of the tenants. About 350 persons were convicted and put into prison. Discontent, however, against the whole existing system continued, and the recusant element gained confidence from the immunity enjoyed by the agitators in general, from the acquittal of the persons convicted in connection with the Sathi disturbances of 1907-08, and particularly from the modification by the High Court of the death sentence passed on the murderers of Mr. Bloomfield.

Sharahbeshi and Tawan.

The years 1910 and 1911 were free from incident. In December, 1911, a large body of *raiyats* assembled at Narkatiaganj railway station to state their grievances to George V, the King-Emperor of India who was then on his way back from Nepal and in January, 1912, they sent representatives to submit a memorial in Calcutta. In September and October, 1912, in a series of articles under the caption "The Planter and the Raiyat" in the *Beharee* newspaper the system was again vigorously attacked. Meanwhile with the decrease of indigo cultivation the landlords' practice to claim compensation from the tenants for releasing them from the obligation to grow indigo became general. Compensation was levied by two methods. First in villages held in *mukarrari* or permanent lease in which the planter was really in the position of proprietor, the *raiyats* executed contracts to pay enhanced rents. The enhancements were about 60 per cent over the original rents and were effected by registered documents. This method was popularly known as *sharahbeshi.*

Secondly, in villages held on temporary lease the planter took lump sums called *tawan* from the tenants. There were of course exceptions, for instance, the Rajpur concern adopted the *tawan* system in all its villages, the Pipra concern while enhancing rent in the *mukarrari* villages continued *tinkathia* cultivation in the *thikadari* villages. The Lalsaraiya concern adopted neither method but merely assessed rent on excess area discovered in the possession of the *raiyats* at the last settlement, which the factory had agreed to leave unassessed so long as the *raiyats* continued *tinkathia* cultivation.

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* *See* "Gandhiji's First Struggle in India" by P. C. Roy Choudhury.

These substituted arrangements were proceeded through 1912, 1913 and 1914 and were in full swing when the Revisional Survey and Settlement operation started in October, 1913. The situation was complicated by the fact that the Bettiah Estate applied for enhancement of rent under section 105 of the Bengal Tenancy Act in all its *thikadari* villages.

In 1914-15 the record-of-rights for the Bettiah subdivision was attested. Towards the end of 1914 a number of petitions were presented to the Lieutenant-Governor complaining of *abwab* and other matters, which were reported on by the Settlement Department. It was clearly proved that illegal *abwabs* were being collected on a large scale. The Bettiah Estate stopped all such levies by its *thikadars,* but the administration was not in a position to enforce a similar prohibition in the Ramnagar Estate. In 1915-16 the records of the Motihari subdivision were attested. The legality of *sharahbeshi* was vigorously contested by the *raiyats.* The majority of the enhanced rents were allowed as the *raiyats* failed to prove their main plea, which was that force had been used to procure the enhanced agreements. The *raiyats*, especially of Pipra and Turkaulia areas, were inclined to be turbulent in their objection to these decisions, and the settlement officers had an unpleasant experience. No actual violence, however. occurred and the *raiyats* eventually seemed inclined to accept the enhanced rents as inevitable.

In the meantime the leaders of the Bettiah *raiyats* had enlisted public interest outside the district. One Shri Rajkumar Shukul of village Satwaria, police-station Lauriya, had attended the Provincial Congress at Chapra in 1915 and the Indian National Congress in December, 1916, in Lucknow and had a resolution moved by Shri Braj Kishore Prasad of Darbhanga regarding the necessity of an enquiry into the agrarian condition in Champaran, particularly because of indigo cultivation. Shri Rajkumar Shukul supported the resolution and the resolution was passed. It is at Lucknow that Shukul extracted a promise from Gandhiji to visit Champaran and look into the matter, when he declined to move the resolution on the ground that he had no personal knowledge of the agrarian conditions in Champaran. In pursuance of his promise Gandhiji arrived at Muzaffarpur on the 10th April, 1917. He saw the Commissioner, Tirhut Division, and intimated him of his impending visit to Motihari and Bettiah to look into the grievances of the *raiyats.* But the Commissioner did not agree with Gandhiji and the latter rightly apprehended obstacles in the way of his enquiry. He was served a notice under Criminal Procedure Code by the Subdivisional Officer, Champaran, to quit Champaran. But Gandhiji politely declined to obey the order and in his refusal note mentioned "............ Out of a sense of public responsibility I feel it to be my duty to say that I am unable to leave this district but if it so pleases the authority I shall submit to the order by suffering from penalty of disobedience".*

Since Gandhiji was apprehensive of his arrest, the whole night preceding the day when the case was to come up he spent in work and gave very clear instructions to his followers as to what they had to do in case of his imprisonment.

Gandhiji appeared before the Subdivisional Magistrate, Motihari, on the 18th April, 1917. The Court was packed and thousands of people were waiting outside. The District Magistrate, the Superintendent of Police and other local officials were present. Gandhiji gave his statement in which he reiterated his previous view and stated that ".......... I have ventured to make this statement not in any way in extenuation of the penalty to be awarded against me but to show that I have disregarded the order served upon me, not for want of respect for lawful authority, but in obedience to the high law of our being—the voice of conscience".

The case was adjourned on that day and was withdrawn unconditionally on the next date. It is believed that the withdrawal was entirely at the instance of Sir Edward Gait, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. Rev. C. F. Andrews is supposed to have worked as the contact-man.

Gandhiji stayed in Champaran and continued his work of hearing and recording grievances of the *raiyats*.

At the intervention of common friends Gandhiji had an interview on the 10th May, 1917, with Mr. Maude, the Chief Secretary to Government of Bihar and Orissa at Patna for about two hours. The Chief Secretary wanted a report from Gandhiji as to the conclusions he had already come to, and also to give up his lawyer friends associating with him in the enquiry.**

Gandhiji furnished his report on the 13th May, 1917. In his report he referred to various kinds of atrocities perpetrated upon the *raiyats* and the illegal exactions extracted from them. He also mentioned that nearly 4,000 *raiyats* had been examined and their statements had been recorded after careful cross-examination. Several villages had been visited and many judgments of courts studied. Gandhiji was also prepared to produce proof in support of his conclusions.

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* *Gandhiji's first struggle in India,* by P. C. Roy Choudhury, Navjiwan Publishing Home, Ahmedabad.

Autobiography of Gandhiji.

Champaran and Satyagraha by Dr. Rajendra Prasad.

Autobiography of Dr. Rajendra Prasad.

** *See* "Gandhiji's first struggle in India" for Gandhiji's letters. He refused to give up his Lawyer friends. (P. C. R. C.)

In his report he had also recommended for certain relief to the *raiyats* and wanted that they should be told by proclamation and notices distributed broadcast among them that they were not only bound to pay *abwabs, tawan* and *sharahbeshi* but they ought not to pay such amounts. He also recommended that the *raiyats* should be informed that they were not bound to render any personal services and that they were free to sell their services to whomsoever they chose and that they were not bound to grow indigo, sugarcane, or any other crop unless they wished to do so and unless it was profitable for them. He further recommended that the Bettiah Raj leases given to the factories should not be renewed until the wrongs were remedied and when renewed, should properly safeguard *raiyat's* rights. As to *dasturi,* he recommended, the better paid and educated men should be put in charge of responsible offices and that no continuance should be given to the diminution in *raiyat's* wages by illegal exaction of *dasturi.*

Gandhiji also declined to disassociate himself with his lawyer friends until it was proved to his satisfaction that their presence was aggravating the situation.

The Chief Secretary sent his reply to Gandhiji's letter on the 21st May, 1917, in which he mentioned that the local officers had been called for reports by the 20th June, 1917, and that the Settlement Officer could not give more than a general or preliminary report within the short time allowed, but the Government hoped that it would be sufficient to deal with the tenancy matters on the points recommended by Gandhiji and that the District Officer had been asked to report on the points which did not fall within the scope of Settlement Operations.

It is evident that the Chief Secretary's reply was very calculating and he did not promise very quick action. But since the agitation was far too acute and the district was in a state of unparalleled excitement, the Government was obliged to take quick action. The Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah, the District Magistrate of Champaran, the Commissioner of Tirhut Division and the Settlement Officer were asked to report on the letter of Gandhiji referred to above. As a result of all this the Bengal Government appointed a committee to look into the matter, vide Resolution no. 1890C., dated the 10th June, 1917.

It is interesting to mention here that a resolution was moved in the Legislative Council as early as the 7th April, 1915, to appoint a mixed committee of officials and non-officials to enquire into the complaints of the *raiyats* and to suggest remedies. But it was negatived on the ground that the appointment of such a committee at that stage was unnecessary as the Settlement Officers were engaged in collecting materials required for the decision of question at issue and additional enquiry would exacerbate the relations of landlord and tenant which were feeling the strain of Settlement Operations.

Agrarian Committee.

The committee appointed to enquire into the agrarian conditions of Champaran consisted of Mr. F. G. Sly, C.S.I., Commissioner, Central Provinces, as President, Mr. E. L. Tanner, I.C.S., Settlement Officer, South Bihar, as Secretary and Mr. L. C. Adami, I.C.S., Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Bihar and Orissa, Raja Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh, Member of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, Mr. D. J. Reid, Member of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, Mr. G. Rainy, I.C.S., Deputy Secretary in the Finance Department, Government of India, and Mahatma Gandhi as members. The duty of the committee was: " (1) to enquire into the relations between landlords and tenants in Champaran including all disputes arising out of the manufacture and cultivation of indigo; (2) to examine the evidence of these subjects already available, supplementing it by such further enquiry, local and otherwise, as they may consider desirable, and (3) to report their conclusion to Government stating the measures they recommended in order to remove any abuse or grievances which they may find to exist ".

The Lieutenant-Governor left a free hand to the Committee as to the procedure they would adopt in arriving at the facts.

Raja Harihar Prasad Narayan Singh resigned on account of ill-health before the committee assembled and Raja Kirtyanand Singh of Banaili, Member of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, was appointed to fill his place.

Although about 4,000 *raiyats* had given their evidence before Gandhiji, only 25 *raiyats* were produced before the Committee for examination. Several officials were also examined and local investigations were held at eight indigo concerns where a mass of registers of accounts were examined. The Committee recorded evidence and held nine sittings at Motihari, Bettiah and Ranchi. The Bihar Planters' Association was also invited to submit a memorandum of its view but it did not do so on the ground that it had no materials and facts regarding agrarian conditions in Champaran.

Sri Rajkumar Shukla in his evidence *inter alia* mentioned that even the rate of Rs. 19 or Rs. 20 a *bigha* was never paid and the result was that the tenants had not only been impoverished but they were running away and many had settled in Nepal Terai. *Painkharcha* was being charged even for the lands which had never been irrigated. The tenants were fined Rs. 460 for submitting a memorial to Lieutenant-Governor. Sri Rajkumar Shukla mentioned a few of the *abwabs* besides *painkharcha* as follows :—

(1). *Bapahi Putahi.*—When the father or relative of a person died and his land devolved by inheritance on him the factory did not allow him to take possession of it until he paid Rs. 5 per *bigha* to the factory.

(2) *Ghorahi Bhainsahi.*—When a buffalo or horse of the factory became old then the manager sold it by lottery and realised Re. 1 from each tenant.

(3) *Bungalahi.*—When the bungalow of the indigo concern had to be repaired Re. 1 was realised from each tenant. The *raiyats* were compulsorily to pay for the residential comforts of their landlord.

(4) *Hak Talbana.*—When a peon was posted on any tenant for any purpose then Re. 1 was realised as *talbana.* The idea was that not only the peon would get something atrocious done but also made the tenant pay for his irritating stay.

(5) *Phaguahi.*—*Phagua* or the Holi festival is a great festival in Bihar and even if the factory *sahib* did not observe it there was no reason why the tenants should not pay a rupee each for enjoying the festival.

(6) *Hakfarkhawan.*—This was realised at the rate of one anna per rupee on the rent and was an offset for giving a receipt for the rent realised.

(7) *Motorahi.*—If the factory owner went in for a motor car the tenants should feel proud of the fact and they would have to pay Re. 1 per head for the privilege of having a car-owner as the boss.

Apart from all this, Shri Shukla spoke of *bethbegari* in which labourers were forcibly made to work. The factory managers had also another great privilege and whenever there was any dispute between one tenant and another and complaint was made to the factory, the manager used to realise fine from Rs. 5 to Rs. 500 commonly known as *hakjariwana.* The managers did not allow the disputes of the tenants to be settled by themselves or by private arbitration inasmuch as their income would be lessened thereby.

It may particularly be mentioned that the Settlement Officer, North Bihar, Mr. J. A. Sweeney, I.C.S., gave evidence which went against the planters. For this he had to face social boycott by the Europeans. Sweeny's contribution was of very great help to Gandhiji. As a matter of fact the report which Mr. Sweeny had submitted to the Government on some of the suggestions of Gandhiji has now been looked into and showed that he fully supported the views of Gandhiji. Mr. Sweeny was careful before he sent up his report to the Government. He particularly consulted some of his trusted Assistant Settlement Officers including Messrs. Luke, B. P. Seal and Akhauri Gopi Kishore Lal. Mr. Sweeny had to face considerable official displeasures for his outspoken views and was transferred to the Judiciary. This able administrator had to retire prematurely and left India almost an invalid.*

The Committee found the *tinkathia* system to be unpopular, radically defective and inconsistent with the relations that should exist between landlords and tenants under modern conditions : it recommended that emergency legislation should be introduced to effect the abolition of the system and to prescribe the conditions under which indigo cultivation might be continued on a purely voluntary basis.

As the feeling against *sharahbeshi* was so strong and the prospect of ruinous legislation so imminent, it was recommended that the enhancements of rent should be reduced by 20 to 26 per cent and that all entries on the record-of-rights regarding existing obligations to grow indigo should be cancelled.

The taking of *tawan* in the opinion of the Committee was not justified in temporarily leased villages, while in permanently leased villages it was desirable that an arrangement analogous to that in connection with *sharahbeshi* should be made. It was, therefore, proposed that in the former the Bettiah Estate should make it a condition of the renewal of the leases to the *thikadars* that 25 per cent of the *tawan* collected should be refunded to the tenants through the estate and that the estate should for seven years forego enhancement of rent granted in the settlement courts on the ground of rise in prices, from any tenant who had paid *tawan*.

Champaran Agrarian Act, 1918.

The Government accepted the Committee's recommendations generally. Accordingly a Bill was introduced in the Legislative Council in the cold weather 1917-18, and in its final form the Champaran Agrarian Act (Act I of 1918) received the assent of the Governor-General on the 1st of May, 1918. The Act abolishes the *tinkathia* system and renders invalid any existing or future contract between a landlord and a tenant which contains a condition to set apart the land of the tenancy or any portion thereof for the cultivation of a particular crop; though contracts between tenant and landlord, for a period not exceeding three years, for the delivery of a specified weight of a particular crop, as distinguished from cultivation of a certain area with that crop, are permitted. In accordance with a compromise arrived at between the *raiyats* on the one hand, and the Pipra, Turkaulia and Motihari factories on the other, it is provided that the *sharahbeshi* enhancements should be reduced with effect from the 1st October 1917, by 30 per cent in the case of

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* The Editor had the advantage of personal contacts with Messrs. Seal and Lal and looked into the records in Government Archives. (P. C. R. C.)

Turkaulia, and by 26 per cent in all other cases. On the other hand, where the *sharahbeshi* enhancement had either been disallowed by the Settlement Department, or not imposed at all, and the indigo condition was in force and entered in the record-of-rights, it is provided that the entry should be cancelled, to an extent proportionate to the reduced enhancement allowed in respect of *sharahbeshi* tenancies belonging to the same or neighbouring villages of the same landlord. It provides for the freedom of tenants from an obligation to grow indigo and liberty to them to grow indigo on the voluntary basis if they like and makes arrangements to prevent litigation in respect of the matters covered by the Act. Finally the Committee's recommendation to confer on the Collector summary powers to fine landlords for the exaction of *abwabs* was rejected by the legislative body and omitted from the Act.

Decay of the Industry.

The first crisis of the indigo industry in North Bihar was due to the planters themselves and that was the discontent of the cultivators that were obliged to grow indigo. Indigo cultivation had never become popular in North Bihar in spite of the fact that a large number of cultivators and labourers made their living out of indigo cultivation and manufacture. The second crisis came in 1897 when synthetic indigo that flooded the market at once caused a sharp decline of price of indigo. The price fell to about Rs. 152 per maund from Rs. 234 per maund. By 1904 the price had fallen down to Rs. 100 per maund. By 1914-15. there were only 59 concerns producing 7,000 maunds of indigo as against 112 concerns with an average production of 65,000 maunds before the synthetic indigo was invented.

Subsequent Agrarian Disputes.

The war of 1914—1918 curtailed the supply of aniline dyes and the price of indigo rose to 600 per factory maund. The profits of the Champaran concerns rose proportionately but owing to the disputes described above, the area under cultivation did not increase very materially. After the war the prices dropped rapidly to their former level. The industry ceased to be of any importance and finally died out completely in 1931.

The passing of the Agrarian Act set at rest all disputes directly concerned with the industry, but the general discontent broke out in other directions. There was considerable excitement and opposition on the part of the tenants to the enhanced rents. In 1918-19 there were a large number of criminal cases between factory landlords and tenants. The latter objected to paying their rents; in their *raiyati* holdings they claimed fishery rights and disputed the landlords' rights in trees, and there were disputes over grazing rights. These subjects had been raised before the Committee and attained importance then for the first time. In 1919-20 the certificate procedure under section 158-A was granted to certain European *mukarraridars* in respect of their worst villages. Though the Bettiah Estate set apart grazing grounds for cattle and the rights of tenants to a half share of the trees on *raiyati* holdings was settled by a ruling of the High Court, the situation did not improve.

In 1921 the non-co-operation movement gave rise to a distinctly anti-landlord tendency and resulted in a general inclination to withhold rents though there was no definite no-rent campaign. There was bad feeling against European *thikadars* and *mukarraridars* in spite of the fact that they behaved with some restraint.

The Turkaulia, Pipra and Motihari concerns applied for certificate procedure for the collection of rents and Indian landlords also complained of the difficulty of collecting rent. There were also disputes over fisheries. Some of the European *thikadars* in the north of the district were on the bad terms with the *raiyats*; the causes of disputes which culminated in the burning of the Chauterwa factory were mainly due to the labour supply and grazing. A detachment of mounted military police was posted in the north of the district. Owing to this punitive measures and the cessation of the non-co-operation campaign, relations improved in the following years.

In 1923-24 the certificate procedure was considerably extended as there was still widespread difficulty in collecting rents. Subsequently relations were satisfactory, though there was intermittant agitation regarding the rights of tenants to free-grazing and wood in the jungles in the north of the district. Between 1924 and 1928 the Turkaulia, Pipra, Motihari and Rajpur concerns in the south and the Bairiah concern in the north surrendered their leases to the Bettiah Estate, and their villages were reabsorbed in the estate and taken under *khas* management.

In 1929-30 there was considerable agitation in the Doon valley in the Ramnagar Estate regarding the recognition of tenants who had cultivated *gairmazarua malik's* lands, the cutting of trees in the jungles and petty illegal exactions of the staff. The disputes were complicated by the fact that the Ram Raja had obtained possession of the estate in 1927-28, but his position being anything but secure. he could not settle these disputes. A congress committee enquired into the grievances of the tenants but failed to achieve a settlement. Relations, however, improved and the agitation subsided. The Ram Raja finally lost possession in 1931 through a decision of the Privy Council.

SALTPETRE INDUSTRY.

Saltpetre was another industry of importance in the district. It used to be manufactured from the seliferous earth found round the village homesteads, where potassium of nitrate appeared on the surface as a white efflorescence. The process of manufacture was simple and the implements were primitive. Manufacture were carried on in small factories situated in the towns and villages scattered over the country. Nitrous soil was collected from the vicinity of the village houses and steeped in small earthen filters. The nitrous brine was next concentrated in iron or earthen vessels with the aid of artificial heat, and saltpetre was obtained by crystallization, as the temperature of the concentrated liquid fell. The saltpetre obtained was impure in quality, as it contained earthly matter and foreign salts (such as doride and sodium) in mechanical admixture. This saltpetre was collected in refineries situated at different points among the village works, was purified in them to a fair degree of refraction and was then sent to Calcutta, some for export and some for purification to a higher degree of refraction in the local refineries.

The saltpetre industry was associated closely with the poor Nunias. The very word "Nunia" is suggestive of the profession the community was associated with. Nunia is derived from the word '*noon*' a Hindi transcription of the word 'salt' in English. These Nunias actually used to collect seliferous earth and conduct all the processes up to the pre-refraction stage. Even at the refraction stage Nunias were associated with saltpetre, though not as independent worker but as hired coolies.

The saltpetre industry was founded on a system of advances made by the middlemen who had also contacts with larger business houses in Calcutta. The manufacture itself was being controlled by the Northern India Salt Department through a system of license.

It is interesting to mention here that Macpherson has referred to the chronic dearth of saltpetre in England in the seventeenth century.* "Repeated attempts have been made (in England) to obtain saltpetre by digging up the floors of houses, stables, and pigeon holes; and the people were obliged to admit saltpetre men to destroy their floors whenever they thought proper. Other projects were set on foot; but they were equally unavailing." Naturally, the authorities of the Company in England "were never weary of asking for saltpetre from Patna where it could be had so good and cheap that the contract for it was discontinued on the west coast in 1668 and at Masulipatam in 1670". The English used to send down every year saltpetre from Patna, at first to Hugly and later on to Calcutta in a small fleet of boat.

On December 8, 1755, English authorities in Bengal wrote to the court of Directors, "our contract for saltpetre................ being insufficient to comply with your directions.............. we increased the quantity. Omichand agreed to deliver us by the end of January from 30,000 maunds to 40,000 maunds at the rate of Rs. 5-12-0 (Arcot) per factory maund".

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* Quoted in Prof. J. C. Sinha's *Economic Annals of Bengal*, MacMillan and Co., Ltd., 1927.

In 1758 Mir Jafar granted an exclusive monopoly of saltpetre to the English East India Co. The entire quantity of saltpetre produced in Bihar was bought at certain fixed prices by the company which exported the greater part of it to Europe.

The quantity of saltpetre exported from Champaran in the early days is not exactly known. But an idea of the same can be had from the total figure of the Company's business in saltpetre which received the greater part of the article from Bihar and the contribution of Champaran in the total quota of Bihar was not inconsiderable.

Saltpetre being an ingredient of gunpowder, its export was regulated by the course of political event. During the twelve years of peace from 1763 the company sold on an average 22,620 bags of saltpetre per annum, while during the eight years of war from 1775 to 1782, its average annual sale was only 15,019 bags. The Company's export of saltpetre to England brought a profit of £ 5,381 in 1776. There was a temporary drop in the business of saltpetre during the late seventies and early eighties of the 18th century, but during 1783 to 1792 the average annual sale was 33,130 bags. This increase was due to the resumption of the re-export trade in saltpetre from England in the years of peace, for in their letter of 8th April, 1789, the court of Directors complained that although they had gradually reduced the price of saltpetre from 80 *s.* to 42 *s.* per cwt. the demand did not show sufficient increase. Again in their letter of May 19, 1790, they remarked "we have again reduced the price (of saltpetre) to 38 *s*................ but out of 39,703 bags offered at the September sale only 24,896 sold at the advance of 6 *d.* In the March sale of this year we declared 32,390 bags at the same price but only 21,354 sold. We have now in warehouse unsold 18,541 besides what we expect by the approaching arrivals". But this glut disappeared with the outbreak of war with France. In 1792 the Company sold 22,000 bags of saltpetre at an average price of £ 3-7-10 per cwt. This was only on account of continental trouble than any permanent increase in consumption.

The English, the French and the Dutch all were equally interested in the saltpetre trade. The French had their factory at Chupra and the English at Patna and Singhia. The three European companies were united in their opposition to the purchase of saltpetre by the Government or the nobles in high position and later selling it to them. Sometime in the thirties of the eighteenth century the English issued strict instructions of their factory at Patna not to buy any petre from the Government and entered into a tripartite agreement with the French and the Dutch to frustrate the designs of the Government in this direction. In 1838 the French disassociated themselves and the price was considerably raised by competition.

In this way saltpetre trade passed through several vicissitudes and in Champaran the manufacture of saltpetre thrived well till the close of the nineteenth century, when it was showing a tendency to decline. In 1895-96 the outturn of saltpetre was 70,500 maunds and that of the salt educed was 4,000 maunds, which declined to 25,000 maunds and 2,600 maunds, respectively, in 1904-05. The number of Nunias then in the district is not available but in the census of 1911 it was recorded that there were 58,935 Nounias in the district and the saltpetre refineries were nine which provided employment to 232 workers, out of which 18 were in direction, supervision and clerical work, 39 skilled workers and the rest were unskilled. Although these figures do not speak of the actual number of Nunias engaged in saltpetre, but it may be said that the majority of this community was engaged in saltpetre.

The chief causes for the decline of this industry were of varied nature. The cost of manufacture, which never went beyond rather crude and orthodox methods, had gone up considerably on account of a number of supervisory staff that had to be engaged for better control. The high cost of production left the margin of profit very low. A substitute of saltpetre began to be imported from abroad and depressed its price. The Nunias who formed the man force slowly gave up the hard work owing to low wages and took to other occupations. The control of the Salt Department was also a discouragement to the man engaged in this industry.

INDUSTRY DURING THE CURRENT CENTURY.

Sources of Power Supply.

There are no Hydro-Electric or Thermal Stations anywhere in the district.

The industries that are run by power have either their own electricity plants or get the power from the Electric Supply Companies or from the power generating stations maintained by Government. The sugar mills have all their own power generating plants.

MINING AND HEAVY INDUSTRIES.

There are no mining and heavy industries in this district. There are no prospected minerals excepting stone chips from Bhiknathori area. The bottleneck due to the Ganga and other rivers stands on the way of the starting of heavy industries.

LARGE-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

Sugar manufacture is the only industry in the district which may be classed as a large-scale industry from the capital outlay point of view and the number of workers employed in an individual unit of the industry. This industry has passed through several vicissitudes. As has been stated above, it was once a very popular industry in the district, but about 1850 the high prices obtained for indigo dealt final blow to this industry. The cultivation of sugarcane was replaced by indigo and the sugar factories were converted into indigo concerns. However, with the decline of the indigo industry by the close of the last century this industry turned the corner and since 1905 large-scale modern sugar factories have sprung up.

The first of these appears to have been started at Siraha which at that time was a branch factory of the Indian Development Company, whose headquarters were at Ottur in Muzaffarpur district. This factory came to an end several years before the publication of the last District Gazetteer of 1938 (containing information up to 1932). In 1906 a factory was built at Pakri near Lauriya and one at Barah, the former being the property of Parsa concern and is now known as S. K. G. Sugar, Ltd., Lauriya, and is under the management of Dalmia Jain. The one at Barah, now known as Champaran Sugar Co., Ltd., Chakia, belong to M/s. Begg Sutherland and Co.

In the thirties there was a tremendous drop in the price of grain and other crops and the production of sugar was very profitable. Further the industry received a great impetus from the decision of the Government of India to give tariff protection to this industry by passing the Sugar Industries Protection Act in 1932. This granted protection to the sugar industry for an initial period of fourteen years. These causes led to the establishment of six sugar factories, out of a total of nine now existing in the district, in the early thirties. M/s. Begg Sutherland and Co., built another large mill at Chainpatia and M/s. Birla and Co., at Narkatiaganj. The four other concerns that were rapidly built up at that time were N. B. Sugar Mills, Bagaha; Shri Hanuman Sugar Mills, Ltd., Motihari; Motilal Padampat Sugar Mills, Majhoulia; and Sugauli Sugar Works, Sugauli. The Harinagar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Harinagar, also followed the suit and now there are altogether nine sugar mills working in the district.

An important development in the field of sugar industry has been the legislation of 1937, which is known as Bihar Sugar Factories Control Act, 1937, and the Rules framed thereunder. According to this Act some area round each factory was reserved to each factory of which the factory concerned is bound to purchase cane. The Rules framed under this Act in 1938 gave a legal status to Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies. There has also been made a provision for assigned area over and above the reserved area to certain factories. This has been done when it was found that the reserved area of any particular factory was not sufficient to feed it.

This Act gave an impetus to the formation of the Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies. These societies were originally purely organised by the canegrowers themselves. But now they are organised by the Government staff and are registered under the Co-operative Societies Act. While the internal management of these societies is entrusted to a Committee of Management consisting of the elected members, the supervision and the audit is carried on by the Government staff. These Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies operating in the area of each sugar factory are affiliated to the Central Co-operative Development and Cane Marketing Union which enters into contract with the factory and regulates supply of cane on behalf of the societies. There is also a Provincial Canegrowers' Co-operative Association and a Provincial Co-operative Federation to which all these societies and the Central Unions are affiliated.

In 1938 there were only six Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies and one Cane Marketing Union. Having gained some legal status, the Societies began to multiply rather in a geometrical progression and in 1945 there were 554 Societies and 10 Unions with a membership of 12,840. While the figure for the Unions has remained the same, the number of Societies and membership has continuously been increasing. In 1951 there were 1,170 societies with a membership of 39,696 as against the corresponding figures of 1,448 and 68,295, respectively, in 1956-57.

So far the financial aspect of these Societies are concerned, they have their share capital but also get some commission on the cane supplied through them. Besides, they also get loans from the Co-operative Bank and the factories to be distributed amongst the needy members. As a matter of fact the value of share capital of these Societies is generally considerably less than the actual amount of help given by the Societies to their members. In 1939 the amount of financing to members came up to Rs. 23,025 and the capital of the Societies was Rs. 27,566. In 1941 the figures stood at Rs. 19,730 and Rs. 16,747, respectively, as against Rs. 12,82,387 and Rs. 8,46,610, respectively, in 1950. In 1956-57 the owned capital of the Societies was Rs. 4,59,629 and the amount of financing to members was Rs. 12,42,744.

The Sugar Factories Control Act of 1937 also affected the industries in several other ways. Under the provisions of the Act price level and marketing of sugarcane were regularised, a cane cess was imposed and an Advisory Committee was set up to advise the Cane Commissioner on the issue of allotment of area to different factories.

The minimum price of sugarcane is fixed by the Government every year on the basis of cost of cultivation, output and the price level of competitive crops. This minimum price is practically paid by each factory and their agents. The cane price varied between annas 5 to Rs. 2 per maund from 1937 to 1952. The price was Rs. 1-5-0 per maund at out stations and Rs. 1-7-0 at factory gate in 1956-57 per maund. According to the provisions of the Act, the cane price is to be paid within a fortnight from the date of weighment or within a week of subsequent demand. Sugarcane is supplied in bullock-cart loads which are weighed at the factory gate or outlying purchasing centres. The receipts indicating the gross weight and the net weight of cane along with the amount of price payable to the seller is issued to the person delivering cane. These receipts are subsequently presented for payment at the payment centres and payment is made with a copy of payment sheet delivered to the payees.

A cane cess was levied on all cane delivered or entering into the local areas of a sugar factory. The money so collected is merged into the general revenue of the State. The State Government has, however, launched some schemes, like tube-wells for irrigation, operated by electricity, improvement of roads in sugarcane producing areas, etc., for the benefit of the cultivation. Out of this cess money the Government also meet the cost of sugarcane development and research from year to year. The cess rate varied between 6 pies to 3 annas per maund from 1937 to 1952. It continued to be 3 annas per maund in 1956-57. It is estimated that an average of nearly 30 lakhs goes to the State Exchequer from this district on account of this cess.

A central excise duty has also been levied on sugar since 1942-43. The rate has varied between Rs. 3.62 nP. per cwt. and Rs. 5.62 nP. per cwt. till 1956-57. The Central Excise Department exercises continuous control through the help of its staff and an Inspector is posted at each factory to look after the interest of the Government's revenue. On an average Rs. 1,19,78,450 (on the basis of figures from 1953-54 to 1957-58) are collected by the Central Excise Department from sugar annually. Molasses is a provincial subject. No tax is levied on molasses but control is exercised as regards its disposal to distilleries.

The District Sugarcane Advisory Committee consists of an equal number of representatives of canegrowers and factory owners, besides the officials. The Collector is the Chairman of this Committee. The Committee is constituted every year. The Committee advises the Cane Commissioner on the estimates of cane requirement of each factory, declaration of reserved and assigned areas, etc., brings to the notice of the Collector cases of breach of any of the provisions of the Sugar Factories Control Act and Rules framed thereunder, recommends ways and means to maintain healthy relations between factories and canegrowers. The Committee exercises considerable influence and check on the activities of the factory owners and their relations with the canegrowers.

The Champaran Sugar Co., Ltd., Barachakia, has a daily cane crushing capacity of 932 tons. It is under the management of M/s. Begg Sutherland and Co. and has double carbonization plants. In 1951-52 seasons it crushed 19,10,860 maunds of cane and manufactured 2,60,693.30 maunds of sugar and 69,269 maunds of molasses. The corresponding figures for 1956-57 were 35,32,462.30 maunds, 3,02,617 maunds and 1,27,073 maunds, respectively. The recovery figure of this factory was 8.57 per cent in 1956-57.

Sri Hanuman Sugar Mills, Ltd., Motihari, which is under the management of M/s. Sri Hanuman Investment Co., Ltd., has a daily cane crushing capacity of 850 tons. It has double carbonization plants since 1945-46. In 1951-52 seasons it crushed 17,69,443 maunds of cane and manufactured 1,80,878 maunds of sugar and 55,943 maunds and 3 seers of molasses as against 44,67,759.10 maunds; 3,08,751; and 1,15,379 maunds and 31 seers respectively in 1956-57. The recovery figure of this factory in 1956-57 was 9.09 per cent.

The Sugauli Sugar Works, Ltd., Sugauli, has a daily crushing capacity of 900 tons and has double sulphitation plants. In 1951-52 season, it crushed 15,52,136 maunds of cane and manufactured 1,51,822 maunds of sugar and 59,730 maunds of molasses as against 22,98,129.20 maunds, 2,11,651.20 maunds, and 84,029 maunds, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure was 8.99 per cent in 1956-57.

Motilal Padampat Sugar Mills Co., Ltd., Majhaulia, has a daily crushing capacity of 1,000 tons. It has a double sulphitation plant. In 1951-52 seasons it crushed 28,18,455 maunds of cane and manufactured 2,93,400 maunds of sugar and 1,02,000 maunds of molasses as against the corresponding figures of 50,29,462.20 maunds, 4,81,360 maunds and 1,87,280 maunds, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure was 9.57 per cent in 1956-57.

Champaran Sugar Co., Ltd., Chainpatia, is under the management of M/s. Begg Sutherland and Co. It has single sulphitation plant. It crushed in 1951-52 seasons 20,85,501 maunds of sugarcane and manufactured 2,15,569 maunds of sugar and 86,587 maunds of molasses as against 27,60,361.10 maunds, 2,57,001.10 maunds and 1,16,064 maunds, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure was 9.31 per cent in 1956-57.

S. K. G. Sugar Co., Ltd., Lauriya, has a daily cane crushing capacity of 800 tons and is equipped with double sulphitation plants. It is under the management of M/s. Dalmia Jain and Co., Ltd. In 1951-52 season, it crushed 29,68,623 maunds of cane and produced 3,04,651 maunds of sugar and 1,16,009 maunds of molasses as against 42,26,919.10 maunds, 4,10,483.27 maunds and 1,71,430 maunds, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure in 1956-57 was 9.71 per cent.

The New Swadeshi Sugar Mills, Ltd., Narkatiaganj, has a daily cane crushing capacity of 900 tons. In 1951-52 it crushed 23,62,863 maunds of cane and manufactured 2,45,756 maunds of sugar and 84,540 maunds of molasses as against 40,54,634.10 maunds, 2,35,670 maunds and 1,08,211* maunds, respectively in 1956-57. Its recovery figure was 9.20 per cent in 1956-57. It is under the management of Birla Brothers.

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* This figure is supplied by the District Industries Officer. But the Superintendent of Excise, Champaran puts the figure at 1,56,706 maunds in 1956-57.

The Harinagar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Harinagar, is the largest Sugar Mills of the district and has a daily crushing capacity of 1,500 tons. It is under the management of M/s. Narain Lal Bandilal. It has double sulphitation plants. In 1951-52 season, it crushed 32,64,908 maunds of cane and manufactured 3,27,760 maunds of sugar and 1,17,113 maunds and 20 seers of molasses as against 45,87,693.10 maunds, 4,13,132 maunds and 1,92,521 maunds 4 seers, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure was 9.01 per cent in 1956-57.

The North Bihar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Bagaha, is under the management of Kanoria Brothers. Its crushing capacity is 900 tons per day. In 1951-52 seasons it crushed 17,65,814 maunds of cane and manufactured 1,77,206 maunds of sugar and 64,940 maunds of molasses as against 26,34,606 maunds, 2,35,670 maunds and 1,08,211* maunds, respectively, in 1956-57. Its recovery figure in 1956-57 was 8.94 per cent.

Several of the sugar mills have their own farms to grow seed cane and to supplement their normal crush. The sugar factories under this category are Sri Hanuman Sugar Mills, Ltd., Motihari, M. P. Sugar Mills Co., Ltd., Majhaulia, S. K. G. Sugar, Ltd., Lauriya, N. S. Sugar Mills, Ltd., Narkatiaganj and Harinagar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Harinagar. The last named has the largest farm, the supply of cane from which varies between 9 to 12 lakh maunds annually.

It is reported that about 10,000 workers are employed in this industry during the season and about 3,000 during the off season, the average being 4,000 workers the year round.

The unskilled and semi-skilled labourers, who are in the category of simple mazdoor, are generally recruited from within the district. No recruitment practice has so far been put into practice. But due to retaining practice and various agreements between the labour and the management the employment is becoming steady. The Labour Unions see to the interests of the labourers for recruitment and continuance. The heirs of the deceased and disabled labourers are given preference in employment. The skilled jobs are filled up by properly qualified persons outside the district, if necessary.

The labourers are now becoming more and more conscious of their rights and effective in their demands on account of labour unions. Each of the sugar mills has one or two labour unions, most of which are affiliated to Indian National Trade Union Congress. Some of the unions are under the influence of various other political parties. During the recent years the labourers have acquired for themselves certain facilities from the management with the help of Government or by the methods of agitation and negotiation.

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* The Superintendent of Excise, Champaran puts the figure at 1,25,775 maunds in 1956-57.

The minimum wages in the industry was about Rs. 10 per month in 1930-31 which fell to Rs. 6 per month in 1936-37. The wages increased to Rs. 11 in 1939-40, to Rs. 22-8-0 in 1945-46, to Rs. 36 in 1946-47 and again to Rs. 45 in 1947-48. The wages were once again raised to Rs. 55 per month in 1948-49 since when they have continued to be the same with a minor *ad hoc* addition of annas 12 granted by the decision of the Sugar Standing Committee. The introduction of Provident Fund Scheme has also benefited the workers and has been a step towards the social security measures for the workers. The bonus has now become a regular feature in all the sugar mills.

Some welfare facilities have been given to the labourers in the shape of housing, medical, canteen, educational and recreational facilities.

All the sugar factories give housing facilities to some of the workers, especially to those who are permanent staff. But taking the labour population as a whole, the facility afforded on this count covers a small percentage only.

So far educational facilities are concerned, all but two sugar factories, namely, Sugauli and Chainpura, run schools of different standards. Three of the sugar mills of Harinagar, Majhaulia and Lauriya also maintain one H. E. School each. Other facilities, such as clubs, games, labour welfare fund, electricity, water-supply, etc., have also been provided by many of the factories to the workers.

SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

Among the small-scale industries requiring thousands of capital outlay rice milling is the only industry that may be mentioned. It appears from the census of 1911 that there were a few more small-scale industries of the type in the district, namely, timber yards, brick and tile making factory, and lime works and kilns. There were one timber yards employing 619 workers, one brick and tile factory employing 289 persons, and two lime works and kilns employing 166 workers. All these industries appear to have disappeared by 1921 as none of the industries was recorded at the census of 1921. However, it appears that by this time a new industry had sprung up and it was button making industry. In 1921 there were two such factories employing 237 workers. By this time rice milling industry also cropped up and there was one such factory recorded at the census of 1921. The number of employees was only 32.

RICE-MILLING INDUSTRY.

Champaran being mainly rice producing district, it is only natural that it should have attracted rice-milling industry. It appears from the census tables that the industry did not find any place in the district till 1911 and it was only in the second decade of the current century that a small rice mill was established. It is difficult to say anything definitely regarding the growth and development of this industry since at the subsequent censuses the statistics of industries were unfortunately not included. Nevertheless, it could be said that there had been a steady growth and development of the industry afterwards. Several new mills were established in the district from time to time and there are now 22 important rice mills in the district. A list of such mills with average daily crushing capacity is given below :—

Name of mills and place.	Average daily crushing capacity.
	Tons.
(1) Anpurna Rice Mills, Raxaul	20
(2) Pasupati Nath Rice Mill, Raxaul ..	20
(3) L. N. Rice Mill, Adapur	20
(4) Shree Shankar Rice Mill, Adapur ..	20
(5) Mahabir Rice Mill, Adapur	15
(6) Jai Hind Rice Mill, Chauradano ..	5
(7) Sumeshwar Nath Rice Mill, Chauradano ..	10
(8) Shambhu Rice Mill, Bhalahi	9
(9) Shankar Rice Mill, Ghorasahan ..	20
(10) Durga Rice Mill, Bhalahi	18
(11) Bhagwati Rice Mill, Bhalahi	10
(12) Mahabir Rice Mill, Sikta	15
(13) Bismilla Rice Mill, Sikta	10
(14) Ganesh Rice Mill, Sikta	11
(15) Lakshmi Rice Mill, Sikta	10
(16) Bismilla Rice Mill, Narkatiaganj ..	10
(17) Shri Durga Rice Mill, Bhairoganj ..	12
(18) Shri Mahabali Rice Mill, Chainpatia ..	10
(19) Shri Hanuman Rice Mill, Chainpatia ..	10
(20) Shri Sakambhiri Rice Mill, Ramnagar ..	15
(21) Shri Krishna Bhagwan Rice Mill, Narkatiaganj.	15
(22) Shri Mahabir Rice Mill, Chainpatia ..	..

(Many of the mills crush oil and grind flour.)

There are several more rice mills of smaller capacity in the district. Most of the rice mills are located at the Indo-Nepal border for obvious reasons. Paddy is a predominating crop in Nepal Tarai and Champaran both. Rice is gathered in the harvesting season, particularly when the crop is bumper. All the mills do not work throughout the year as they cannot get paddy supply as and when required.

The rice-milling industry on a big scale flourished in the district for only a few decades. As has been mentioned above, there was no rice mill in the district in 1911 and there was only a small one in 1921 employing only 32 persons. Although the census of 1931 does not provide us with industrial statistics, it recorded the number of persons employed in this industry. The total number of persons engaged in rice pounding and husking and flour grinding was 589 in 1931. Since the census of 1941 had to be much curtailed it does not provide us with any kind of statistics concerning rice milling industry. According to the census of 1951, there were 73 paddy husking mills employing 267 persons.

A decline had recently set in the industry so far big rice mills are concerned. There are two main reasons for the decline of the industry. Firstly a crisis of paddy supply set in during war and post-war scarcity period. Restriction over milling of rice, control over the rates of paddy and rice and procurement levy were enforced by the Government during the last war and post-war scarcity period. This affected big mills quite adversely. Other main reason for the decline of big rice mills is the installation of a number of several rice mills of a very small cost and capacity in the district. These small mills are run by diesel engine and generally have the capacity of crushing of about one to two tons of paddy per day. The machinery itself is very simple and can even be operated single handed.

These two reasons have led to the closure of many big rice mills in the district and several have to work much below their capacity. It has almost become a problem for the big rice mill owners what to do with their machines and boilers. A few of the mill owners have begun dismantling their factory either with a view to remove the same to elsewhere or to utilise the plants for other purposes.

The labour force required for the industry is mostly unskilled and they are recruited from the local population. Since the industry is of more or less seasonal nature labourers have to be watchful for other employments. The labour force engaged in this industry is disorganised and illiterate. According to the census of 1951, there were altogether 267 whole-time employees engaged in the industry.

OTHER SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

According to the census of 1951, the number of establishment of small industries of different kinds in the district is 3,461 with 7,984 whole-time and 188 part-time employees. A table is given below showing the name and number of industries as well as the number of persons employed therein (1951).

Name of industry.	Total no. of establishment.	Persons employed (including part-time.)		
		Male.	Female.	Total.
Textile establishments	2,537	4,067	1,990	6,057
Sweetmeat-making	58	154	6	160
Paddy husking	73	259	8	267
Flour mills	72	192	..	192
Oil-pressing	16	91	10	101
Gur-making	1	11	..	11
Ice-making	2	3	..	3
Biri-making	19	124	..	124
Tailoring	104	231	25	256
Dyeing	6	24	..	24
Hide-making	10	60	..	60
Shoe-making	4	16	..	16
Blacksmithy	186	340	..	340
Cycle repairing	20	71	..	71
Salt-making	1	4	..	4
Explosive materials	2	2	..	2
Medicine manufacturing	4	11	..	11
Soap manufacturing	11	31	..	31
Button-making	33	278	..	278
Goldsmithy	61	157	..	157
Harmonium manufacturing	1	2	..	2
Brick-making	2	30	..	30
Pottery	79	128	44	172
Glass bangle-making	20	49	13	62
Carpentry	116	207	..	207
Basket-making	11	27	16	43
Printing press	2	2	..	2
Book-binding	1	1	..	1
Stone-cutting	1	5	..	5
Painting	8	13	..	13
Total	3,461	6,590	2,112	8,702

It is not clear from the table as to what have been the criteria on the basis of which small-scale industries have been enumerated and naturally it is apprehended that some of the cottage industries might have been enumerated as small industries and *vice versa.* Some of the figures go to corroborate the theory, viz., the number of *gur*-making concern has been recorded as one and that of textile has been recorded as 2,537. Both these industries are widely carried on the district, some on small-scale and some on cottage basis. Naturally the account of cottage industries that is to follow may have some overlappings with the small-scale industries. Some of the figures appear to be underestimated such as for *gur*-making, *biri*-making, shoe-making and book-binding.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Among the cottage industries mention may be made of pearl button, lac, leather, *khadi* and woollen, silk, saltpetre, *khandsari* (*gur*), *dari* (carpet), *khair* (catechu), basket-making, potteries, *ghee* and rope-making industries. A brief account of each of these industries is given below.

Pearl Button Industry.

Button manufacturing industry at Mehsi, a small township adjacent to the Mehsi Railway Station on North-Eastern Railway, is not only unique to this district, but to the State of Bihar and the Indian Union.

The industry owes its origin to the ingenuity of Sri Bhulawari Lal, a Sub-Inspector of Schools and an inhabitant of Mehsi. It is he who sometime in 1905 tried to prepare buttons from oyster shells, so commonly found in river Sikrahna, by hand. In this adventure he also took help of some of his friends. Although buttons so prepared had no good finish, but the idea of encouraging indigenous industries prompted them to the manufacture of such buttons. Some samples of such buttons were sent to Sri Motilal Ghosh, the then Editor of *Amrita Bazar Patrika,* who wrote that since the buttons had a bad finish, they could not have any marketable value. This impelled the originators to install machinery and a set of the same was imported from Japan. With these machines and a small capital outlay of Rs. 1,000 the first button factory under the name of Tirhut Moon Button Factory was established in 1908. Subsequently rules for its registration were framed and it was registered under the Indian Companies Act.

The profits earned by the first factory led to the establishment of a number of other factories at Mehsi. Till the First World War, the industry had to face much competition with the Japanese buttons. But during war years Japanese buttons became scarce and the indigenous industry got a fillip. With the termination of war the Japanese buttons began pouring into the Indian market and pushed back the local product. Nevertheless, the factories went on multiplying gradually. The Second World War put a check on the Japanese buttons and the demand for local buttons shot up in the Indian markets. Some of the foreign markets were also contacted. The manufacturing costs have also come down and the industry can now compete with the foreign products.

It is reported that there are about 116 button factories at Mehsi. They employ individually a few workers and the industry is entirely a cottage industry. The factories are situated at Mehsi mainly because of two reasons, viz., availability of raw material in the form of oyster shell from the river Sikrahna and the local labour force which has acquired some skill needed in the industry. It is said that some interested persons tried the industry at Gorakhpur, but could not succeed. The output of buttons is reported to be about 24,00,000 gross per annum of different types. The quality of the button is of three types—big, medium and small, technically known as 18, 14 and 12 size. The buttons prepared here are used for all purposes except coating.

The producers invest their own money as initial capital for the factory. For a factory having machine strength of 10 a sum of Rs. 5,000 is required as initial capital besides the value of land on which the factory situates. Recently Dayal Bagh concern has purchased the old Tirhut Moon Button Factory and with its entrance into the field small concerns are fading away. It is estimated that the total amount invested in the industry would be about Rs. 75,000. Some of the units for making buttons are run with electric power.

Since the industry is unique in the State, it has attracted the attention of the Government. A Special Officer of the Industries Department has been appointed to help the proprietors tackling the problems which this industry is facing. The Government have also made provision for loans to encourage the industry.

The button industry gives employment to nearly 300 adults of the locality. Children and women are also employed for pasting button paper sheets and for preparing small paper boxes for packing purpose. The workers are paid at piece-rate. Roughly speaking a labourer engaged in the industry earns Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2 per day. The labour employed are of Mehsi and the neighbouring villages. This industry also gives employment to the local workers in some other forms such as in piecing the refuse pearls which is used in decorating floors and walls of buildings. Such piece pearls are sent in large quantities to different parts of the country. Some hundreds of families are engaged in piecing the refuse pearls.

Lac Industry.

Lac or shellac has been a valuable and old cottage industry of Champaran, particularly of the villages lying on the borders of ex-Bettiah and ex-Ramnagar Estates' jungles. Both these estates had a *lahee mahal* and they used to derive a fair amount of income annually from these *mahals*. Almost all the *laheras* (bangle-makers) used to purchase a part of these *mahals*.

Lahee, the insect of lac, is a fungus group of white-ant like insect not visible to the naked eyes. *Lahee* lay eggs on particular type of trees, namely, *pakar, bargaj, bair, siris,* and *palas,* with an alarming speed during the rainy season. With the approach of winter season thick coating of dark maroon colour of a pasty substance is to be found round the stems and branches of host trees. Leaves fall down and trees present a diseased look. The collectors of *lahee* cut down the branches and take out *lahee* by twisting the stems. The *lahee* so collected is dried and powdered and converted into lac. The filthy and dusty part of it is used as the principal raw material for a kind of bangle, locally known as *lahathi*. The *lahathi* is in common use among the rustic women folk. Earlier, women of every class used to use *lahathi*. As a matter of fact, even these days, it is understood to be a sign of good omen and is invariably used by a bride on the occasion of her marriage or the like auspicious ceremonies.

In the pre-war days the rate of *lahee* used to range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 120 per maund, but with the introduction of some synthetic product in place of original *chapra* (refined lac), and the popularity of glass bangles in place of lac bangles, the price of the lac has considerably fallen down to Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per maund. Cutting down of host trees has also struck a heavy blow against this industry. Nevertheless, a considerable quantity of lac can be had from the forest near Terai area and the industry can be revived by extending some marketing facility.

Leather Industry.

In the world market of hides of London, New York and Boston there is a recognised special quality of goat skin known as " Bettiah quality " and in this " Bettiah quality " Champaran goat skins get the highest position and attract an easy and competitive foreign market. These goat skins are most suitable for glaze-kid and swede leather tanning. These skins are comparatively free from disease and are least affected by post-mortem skin worms. This distinctive goat skin quality and its comparatively easy availability in village or town markets is a very good incentive for a fair number of persons indulging in this trade.

Cow and buffalo hides are tanned by the local Chamars (shoemakers) by indigenous method. After flaying the carcass they dip the hide for a few hours in lime, then take it out and after filling the same with small broken pieces of *banjhee* shrubs soaked in water hang it like a bag. The leather is allowed to remain hanging till it assumes fawn colour when it is dried. The leather so tanned is not very soft and durable but is good enough for many purposes, particularly for rough shoe-making. Many Chamars are also engaged for tanning by " Raguees ", a sub-caste of Muhammadans who have taken to hide export business in Champaran and are said to have immigrated to this district from Ballia district of Uttar Pradesh.

The number of Chamars exclusively engaged in tanning business is not large in the district. According to the census of 1951, there were 317 persons engaged in leather, leather products and footwear. This figure appears to be an under-estimate.

There is no tannery in Champaran, but there is scope for a small tannery. The Bettiah hides are sent to Calcutta. The demand from abroad for this quality of hides has not abated.

Khadi and Woollen Industry.

Though spinning and weaving of cotton and woollen both are widespread, the population of weavers is particularly large in Dacca thana. They are age old industries in the district, but on account of machine-made goods they have been gradually dwindling in importance. Madhubani is a very important place in Dhaka thana from the viewpoint of weaving and spinning. There is a branch of Bihar Khadi Samity at this place with head office at Muzaffarpur.

The woollen industry was started at this place in 1934 following the Earthquake as a branch of the Bihar Earthquake Committee sponsored by the Bihar Provincial Congress Committee. Mr. Mathura Prasad Purushottam, an associate of Mahatma Gandhi, was the organiser of this branch under the direction of the above mentioned Relief Committee. Instead of giving charity relief people were made to spin threads from cotton and were paid according to the yarn produced. The simple spinning work continued till 1937, when it was affiliated to the Bihar Spinners' Association and its name was replaced by Bihar Charkha Sangh, Madhubani. In this year weaving of *khadi* was also started but within one year *khadi* weaving was replaced by the weaving of woollen materials. Since then (1938) woollen industry is being carried out here by handlooms. In 1947 this branch was renamed as Bihar Khadi Samity, Madhubani Branch, and the name has been continuing.

Raw materials for the industry are imported from outside places like Almora, Rajputana and Punjab and sometimes also from Australia as the locally produced wool is not of good quality. The produce consists of blankets, sweaters, and miscellaneous woollen clothes. Workers for the industry are drawn from the nearby villages, consisting of male, female and children. They have been trained in knitting, spinning and weaving. The number of workers runs to several hundreds.

Besides, there is a good sprinkling of Gareries (shepherds) in the district who rear sheep and gather wool of a rough variety. They also knit and spin wool and weave blankets. It is estimated that about 20,000 blankets of rough variety are annually produced by the Gareries of this district.

There are also several families of weavers who pursue their profession of weaving independently. These independent weavers do not have any organised marketing agency for their goods. They sell their goods to the local population. The Bihar Khadi Samity at Patna helps them by buying their stuff and also by supplying them the necessary raw materials.

Silk Industry.

Silk industry is comparatively recent in the district and is confined to a very small area. It is localised in Dhaka and Patahi thanas, specially in Azagari, Dumari and Shishatni villages. It is only in these two thanas that the host trees for eri-silk worm, that is, caster plants, are abundantly grown. The Agricultural Department of the State Government have taken some initiative by distributing eri-silk worms. Officers of the Government tour in villages. They demonstrate and introduce rational method of rearing eri-silk worms and spinning of eri-silk yarn. Though the industry is in its infancy, its future seems to be bright.

Saltpetre Industry.

It has already been mentioned that on account of several reasons saltpetre industry began to decline since the beginning of the current century. The production of saltpetre fell down to 25,000 maunds and that of educed salt to 2,600 maunds in 1904-05 as compared to 70,500 maunds and 4,000 maunds, respectively in 1895-96. The industry has contiued to be in bad state. At the census of 1921 only two saltpetre refineries were recorded which gave direct employment to 31 persons. Unfortunately, no such figures are available for the census years 1931 and 1941. At the census of 1951 only one such establishment was recorded with four wholetime employees.

Saltpetre as an organised industry has had a decline. But there are still Noonias who scrape out saltpetre and there is a small local trade of it. It has been recorded under the head " Occupation " at the census of 1951 that there were 67 persons engaged in this industry for earning their principal means of livelihood. The figure appears to be an under-estimation since there are no less than several hundred families of Noonias in Govindganj and Kessariya police-stations engaged in the saltpetre industry. It may be that several such families which are engaged in the industry only to earn a subsidiary means of livelihood have been omitted at the census. A reported estimate goes to mention that the industries of salt and nitre give employment to nearly 2,000 persons and a capital worth Rs. 1½ lakhs is invested in them. It has also been estimated that abount 20,000 maunds of saltpetre is still produced in the district on indigenous method. Nitrate is exported outside the district and salt is consumed locally.

Till very recent days the system of license was in vogue under the control of the Central Government. But now there is no such licensing system prevalent.

Khandsari *or* Gur *Industry.*

Gur industry is one of the most important cottage industries of the district. The industry is carried on in almost all the villages which produce sugarcane. Generally, the cane not consumed by the sugar mills is utilised for the purpose of making *gur*. A reported estimate goes to show that capital worth Rs. 10 lakhs is invested in the industry and about 6 to 7 lakh maunds of cane is converted into *gur* every year.

The manufacture of *gur* is more extensive in Bettiah subdivision than in the Sadar subdivision.

Gur produced is consumed locally as well as is sent to the neighbouring districts of Muzaffarpur and Saran.

Dari *or Carpet Industry.*

Once Govindganj and Mehsi were centres of *dari*-making industry. The local Momin population of these places has specialised themselves in the art of carpet-making. Now the industry is almost on its last legs. A reported estimate shows that about Rs. 30,000 are invested in the industry and some 100 families are engaged therein. Raw materials, specially yarns, are imported from Bombay and Agra. There is no organised agency for the sale of the products. Hawkers go from village to village in the district and to some parts of Muzaffarpur to sell the products.

Khair *or Catechu Industry.*

Khair or catechu is produced from catechu tree available in the Rajpur Sonaria forest, commonly known as Bagaha forest as well as the Udaipur forest. The system of production is known as *handi* system, under which the matured catechu trees are cut into small pieces and these pieces are thoroughly boiled in a *handi* or pot with water. The juice so obtained is exported by the contractors to outside the district.

Till recently these catechu forests were under the control of ex-Bettiah Raj which never took any care to improve the industry. The Raj used to sell out matured catechu trees to contractors worth Rs. 50,000 annually.

The forests have now vested in the State. But it appears that no concrete step has been taken to put the industry on sound footing.

At Chautarwa Dom Settlement catechu is extensively prepared.

Basket-making Industry.

Since the district has an extensive area of jungles, baskets in common use for domestic life are prepared from bamboo, reed and cane by a particular community known as Dom. At Chautarwa Dom Settlement such articles are extensively prepared. The articles are locally consumed as well as exported outside to the neighbouring districts.

Pottery.

Pottery is an age old industry of the district. Since the product of this industry forms an item of necessity of the village folks, it is hardly subject to any severe shock of slump. Labour is the only item required to keep the industry going.

Earthen dolls are an especiality of the villages surrounding the district headquarters. Besides, earthen jars, pitchers, pots, etc., are also produced.

Potters hardly require any money for the industry excepting very petty amount for colour. But they are economically so depressed that even this petty amount they have to borrow from the village *mahajans* at an exhorbitant rate of interest.

Probably the method of production is itself centuries old, but this does not indicate any decay in the industry. Under proper supervision and training this industry could better the lot of potters and could play an effective role in the rural economy of the district. It is reported that some 200 families of potters (Kumhars) are engaged in this industry.

Ghee *Industry.*

Ghee industry is also an age old industry of the district. Probably every man of some means in the villages used to maintain a cow or a buffalo to use milk for domestic consumption and to sell *ghee* to supplement the family income.

Prior to the Second World War there was enough of pasturage to graze the cattle. But now since the price of foodgrains have abnormally increased and there have been a campaign for the extension of agriculture, such pasturages have considerably vanished. The cost of tending cattle has considerably gone up and people find it difficult even to maintain oxen to cultivate their agricultural lands. There have been also other developments which have told upon the *ghee* industry. Raw milk is now in more demand than it used to be. Introduction and popularity of hydrogenated oil such as *dalda* has also given a rude shock to the industry, for adulteration has much come in vogue and even honest seller is hardly taken at his word.

Although the price of *ghee* has considerably gone up in recent years, but it has hardly provided any incentive to tend more cattle for milk and *ghee*-making. This industry is now on the wane.

Rope-making Industry.

Rope-making on cottage basis by the poorer sections of the population is very common in the district. Rope is prepared out of several raw materials such as *patua* (jute plant), *sanai* (a variety of jute plant), *sabe* grasses, etc. The last named is by far the most common.

Sabe grass grows in the northern boundary of the district between Thori and Bhaisalotan near Tribeni at an altitude of over 500 feet above sea-level, mostly on rocky lands. It also grows on ridges in other parts of the district. It begins growing in cold shady places during the rainy season and comes to its full growth by December or January, when it is cut for use.

Ex-Bettiah and ex-Ramnagar estates each had a *sabe mahal* from which they used to derive good income every year by settling *sabe* grass to *thikadars*. Since both these estates have vested in the State, the sale proceeds goes to the State exchequer through the Forest Department.

Sabe grass sold to *thikadars* is eventually sold out to the villagers by *thikadars* for being turned into rope. Thick and thin both types of rope is prepared from *sabe* grass, the former being used for fastening cots, and also in thatched houses, *tattis*, etc., and the latter for fastening cattle, etc.

It may be mentioned here that as pulp can be prepared from *sabe* grass for the manufacture of paper, a small paper mill could be usefully established in the district.

CHAPTER VI.

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE.

HISTORY OF INDIGENOUS BANKING IN THE DISTRICT.

The following is an extract from the Final Report on the Survey and Settlement operations in the Champaran District in the years 1892—1899 :—

" In Champaran the population is sparse and the available land plenty; the landlords are big and all-powerful, their tenants ignorant, apathetic and improvident, who have not been compelled by circumstances to learn the value of tenant right and who when get into difficulties, throw up their land and go elsewhere............. The money-lender in Muzaffarpur is usually a well-to-do *raiyat*, resident in the village. The people are very thrifty and fairly intelligent and set a very high value on their occupancy rights. The landlords are for the most part, petty, and although they usually claim that their sanction to transfer by sale is necessary, they advance the claim merely in the hope of getting *salami*. In Champaran, on the other hand, the money-lenders are as a rule non-resident and non-agriculturists. The people, as I have said are ignorant and thriftless, while the landlords, being big and powerful have always exercised the right of refusing such transfers, and the civil courts have accepted this right as existing. Where landlord is plentiful and cultivators scarce, it is quite just and proper that landlords should exercise this right, for the cultivators, if impoverished, do not hesitate to leave their estates and go elsewhere to start afresh ".

The quotation throws light on the condition of the people and their agricultural resources. The landlords usually supplied money against mainly the future specified crops and on the insistence of bonded labour, etc. Dr. Hunter's Statistical Account of Champaran mentions that " the people of Champaran as a rule are badly off. The whole agricultural population is in debt to the *mahajan* or money-lender, who has advanced money or grain on the security of next crop ".

In the rural economy, the village *mahajans* have always played an important role. They have been the first and somewhere also the last resource. The rate of interest has differed from time to time very nearly between 10 per cent and 50 per cent. Regarding the provision of credit and the rate of interest, W. W. Hunter in his Statistical Account of Champaran, published in 1876, mentions that " it is supposed that the balance of trade is in favour of Champaran and that coin is being accumulated in the district. The profits of trade are almost entirely used as capital in money lending. Estates are rarely bought or sold, as almost the whole district is the property of three great landowners. In small transactions, when an article is pawned, 12 per cent is taken. In large transactions, where property is mortgaged, from 9 to 12 per cent. But in grain advances where the security is the next crop, the rate charged is 50 per cent. There are several considerable banking establishments in the district, principally branch firms from Patna and Muzaffarpur; but loans are largely conducted by the village *mahajans*". The time allowed for the final consideration has also varied according to the local conditions.

Since the first quarter of the nineteenth century the planters have also played a significant role in the rural economy of the district. They used to advance money against the cultivation of indigo on a certain proportion of land later compulsorily fixed at three-twentieth part of their land holdings. Sometimes they assisted in the general demands also. Every *Kothiwala Saheb* used to give money as loan and this was one of the methods to get hold of consolidated blocks of land. Advances against verbal promises to give future indigo produce were also given, although this system did not last long and the contracts as such were always made in black and white.

Besides the credit facilities discussed, the State usually came to assist the peasants in times of need by giving *taccavi* loan or land improvement loans or the agriculturists loans, etc. Rather after the Muslim advent in India, it gradually came to be a State policy to help the tenants financially.

General Credit Facilities Available in the District.

The general credit facilities available for financing agriculture and other miscellaneous needs of the district at present (1959) can be classed under the following heads :—

(*i*) Individual Capitalists.
(*ii*) Indigenous Bankers.
(*iii*) State Bank of India.
(*iv*) Joint Stock Banks,
(*v*) Co-operative Societies and Banks,
(*vi*) Government Aids and Loans.

The money-lenders of the district may be classified into rural and urban, professional and non-professional, itinerants and others. The distinction between rural and urban money-lender is based purely on their areas of operation. The difference between a professional and non-professional money-lender is very important. The first primarily combines his business with other trade, whereas the latter who are landowners, well-to-do agriculturists, pensioners and widows, lend money on a good security to those who are fairly well-known to them. The itinerant money-lenders are the Pathans and Kabulis.

It is very difficult to give any reliable statistics of the number and volume of business of the money-lenders. However, the Bihar and Orissa Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee (1929-30) found the number of urban money-lenders paying income-tax to be 90 and that of rural money-lenders 190 in this district. These were tentative figures. The number of registered money-lenders in 1952 and 1953 were 420 and 1,501, respectively, by the end of the year, as mentioned in the *Statistical Handbook,* 1955.

THE INDIGENOUS BANKERS.

It is difficult to distinguish between indigenous bankers and money-lenders because in many cases they are one and the same person. The Bihar and Orissa Banking Inquiry Committee (1929-30) lays down that indigenous banker in addition to lending money uses the machinery of credit to raise money by accepting deposits or drawing and discounting *hundis* in the money market and are popularly known as shroffs and their number is not above 15. Many of these are Marwaris and mostly live in Bettiah and Motihari and engage themselves in the trading in grains or cloth or both. The rate of interest charged by the indigenous bankers ranges between 6 to 9 per cent and rarely goes beyond 8 to 12 per cent per annum, whereas the money-lender commonly charges 8 to 12 per cent per annum. This difference crops up mainly due to somewhat lesser security of payment to the money-lenders than that of the bankers or shroffs inasmuch as the money-lenders do not encircle their loans with strict legal encumbrances and thereby command lesser fear among the debtors for balances due.

A shroff finances his business with his savings and if occasions demand, he borrows from the Commercial Banks and Co-operative Banks. The indigenous bankers receive deposits from the public either on current account or for fixed terms and pay interest on them at rates varying between 3 and 9 per cent per annum. The rate at which *hundis* (trade bills and agricultural papers) are discounted by them varies from 4 to 14 per cent per annum. It is estimated that by the year 1952-53 capital worth some two lakhs of rupees were invested in this business.

The factories and the merchants.—The factories, specially the sugar factories of the district give advances for sugarcane to the growers. Such advances are known as *Dadani.* Generally the growers of the reserved areas get *Dadani* directly from the factories or indirectly through the Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies. Similarly, merchants also extend advances to the farmers for crops and to the manufacturers for their goods. These advances form a substantial part of the total finance of the district. It is not possible to know the average amount annually advanced by the sugar factories

Indebtedness, rural and urban and the extent to which usury is prevalent.

The agriculturist, always a man of small means is absolutely dependent on market prices, determined by forces he cannot control. His requirements for cash are for various purposes, e.g., for purchase of seed and livestock and payment of land revenue, etc.

It is difficult to ascertain the extent of indebtedness of the district but some idea may be had from the statements below :—

STATEMENT I.

Statement showing the number of licenses registered for the first time during the year, number of licenses at the end of the year and amount of loan advanced under the Bihar Money-lenders Act during the year.

Year.	No. of licenses registered for the first time during the year.		No. of licenses in force at the end of the year.		Amount of loan advanced.				Total.
					With security.		Without security.		
	Rural.	Urban.	Rural.	Urban.	In urban areas.	In rural areas.	In urban areas.	In rural areas.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949-50 ..	Both heads	232	..	..	1,30,61,109	..	2,27,228	..	1,32,88,337
1950-51 ..	Ditto ..	244	..	..	1,97,09,132	..	1,18,112	..	1,98,27,244
1951-52 ..	Ditto ..	229	..	..	1,86,30,805	..	79,922	..	1,87,10,727
1952-53 ..	65 ..	202	420	1,501	52,89,613	74,88,459	1,04,489	1,23,280	1,30,05,836

STATEMENT II.

Statement showing the amount advanced under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883, and Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884.

	Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 (in rupees).	Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884 (in rupees).
1947-48	700	2,85,062
1950-51	2,62,010	6,60,790
1953-54	5,36,558	84,72,919

STATEMENT III.

Mortgage Loans and Simple Loans (figures in rupees) for the district of Champaran.

1944	96,63,594
1945	93,74,379
1946	1,01,97,413
1947	1,41,32,054
1948	92,87,700
1949	1,14,49,402
1950	1,80,19,062
1951	2,17,27,391
1952	1,26,96,728
1953	1,20,72,152
1954	1,24,30,779
1955	77,89,578
1956	99,83,259

(*i*) The reason for sudden rise in the loan figure in 1951 in Statement III is reported to be food crisis and scarcity.

(*ii*) The reason for the sudden drop in 1952 in the figures of loans against land is reported to be the fear of the people that the mortgaged land will be automatically redeemed after 15 years.

(*iii*) The further fall in 1955 is reported to be on account of—

(*a*) fear of the fixation of ceiling on land made the moneyed class disinterested in land;

(*b*) loans from Government at cheaper rates were available;

(*c*) Gratuitous relief was being given on a considerable scale.

(*iv*) The reason for the increase in 1956 appears to be due to the following reasons :—

(*a*) the prices of foodgrains were high;

(*b*) big landholders disposed of their land for fear of fixation of ceiling.

STATEMENT IV.

Statement showing the number of raiyati *holdings having occupancy rights transferred by registered deeds of sale in the district.*

Year.	Entire.			Part area transferred.
	No.	Area transferred (in acres).	Consideration money (in rupees).	Consideration money (in rupees).
1	2	3	4	5
1950	1,430	4,202.80	23,58,676	1,32,36,141
1951	1,133	1,802.77	11,85,026	1,33,54,664
1953	1,104	1,590.99	13,45,804	1,65,48,917
1954	1,039	1,626.33	5,86,164	1,44,61,846
1955	548	980.34	3,72,109	1,48,04,084

Regarding the extent of indebtedness, the quotations below throw some light.

One hundred and seventy-sixth paragraph of the *Survey and Settlement Report,* 1913—1919, mentions regarding the transfer of occupancy rights, "that there have been 31,125 sales comprising 40,733 acres, the amount paid being Rs. 32,38,466 and the average rate Rs. 79-8-0 per acre. The area sold is 2 per cent of the acre held by *raiyats* with occupancy rights............ The transferees are distributed as below :—

	Per cent.
To landlords	1.3
To lawyers	1.5
To money-lenders	46.2
To *raiyats*	51

"The last settlement statistics were not quite complete and the value of comparison is therefore reduced, but the following figures are of interest :—

———	Number of sales.	Area sold.	Prices paid.	Rates per acre.
1	2	3	4	5
		Acre.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Last Settlement	4,398	10,603	3,59,279	34 0 0
Present Settlement	31,125	40,733	32,38,466	79 8 0

"There have been usufructuary mortgages covering 1,04,552 acres, the amount advanced being Rs. 83,75,054 and the average rate per acre Rs. 80. The important figures at both the settlements are compared in the statement below :—

———	Area mortgaged.	Amount advanced.	Rate per acre.
	Acre.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
Last Settlement	25,235	10,79,712	42 12 7
Present Settlement	1,04,552	83,75,054	80 0 0

"The mortgages are distributed as follows :—

	Per cent.
Landlords	8
Lawyers and those in services	2
Money-lenders	58
Raiyats	32

"Taking the complete figures for sales and so much of the mortgage figures as related to *raiyats,* we find that in 10 years 1,21,978 acres or 8 per cent of the area held by *raiyats* have been transferred.

"The chief conclusions that follow from the transfer figures are :—

(*i*) that transfers are four times as prevalent as 20 years ago;

(*ii*) the market value of land has gone up by nearly 100 per cent;

(*iii*) that mortgages fetch more than sales;

(*iv*) that a very large proportion of land goes to money-lenders..........

In the 1898 figures 40 per cent of all transfers were made to money-lenders. In the new statements 46 per cent of the number of sales and 58 per cent of the area mortgaged have gone to that class."

The quotation points to certain other characteristics of the whole system of lending and borrowing in this district, specially when these figures are set against the three statements from the Statistical Hand-book quoted before

The following features are suggested :—

(*i*) that loans advanced by money-lenders at least cover near about half the total loans advanced in the district;

(*ii*) that transfer of occupancy rights, mostly culminates into the settlement of debts;

(*iii*) that the indebtedness of the district has been increasing, transfers in the period 1913—1919 being four times as prevalent as 20 years ago;

(*iv*) the loans taken are mostly unproductive and later have to be paid from the original capital or other assets, of land or buildings or through bonded labour and so on. The Bihar and Orissa Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee (1929-30) mentions that 18 per cent of the total amount borrowed are for paying off old debts;

(*v*) that the incentive to endeavour for increased output has been marred either through the loss of market or through the failure to compete with the foreign goods.

As to the actual extent of indebtedness in the year 1950-51 Rs. 1,98,27,244 or approximately 2 crores were the total amount of loans advanced under the Money-lenders Act, either with security or without security. This may be taken to be at least half the amount of total of all types of loans. Moreover, as is seen through the figures of other years in the table, that this amount of loan recurs with some increase or decrease, it may be said with a certain amount of definiteness that on average the indebtedness of the whole district at present (1959) has been somewhere between 3½ to 4 crores.

But from another point of view the total of the loan in the year 1950-51 in all the four statements above comes to Rs. 5,58,32,099 and suggests the average total indebtedness of the district to somewhere about 6 crores of rupees.

Another estimate may be made about the indebtedness of the district on the basis of Bihar and Orissa Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee Report (1929-30) and a reply of the Government of Bihar to the Bengal Famine Enquiry Commission (1944-45).

The Bihar and Orissa Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee had estimated the total indebtedness to be Rs. 155 crores and Rs. 31 average per agriculturist. In reply to a question of the Bengal Famine Enquiry Commission regarding the rural indebtedness of Bihar before the War the Government roughly estimated it at Rs. 148 crores.

Now if we modestly take the average burden per agriculturist to be Rs. 30, the total rural indebtedness of Champaran district comes to Rs. 10.3 crores. Along with urban indebtedness the figure will considerably go up. It is fortunate that the indebtedness is not showing signs of quick liquidation.

Role of private money-lenders and financiers, old and renowned families and highly prominent figures.

In the district of Champaran, the banking organisation has not yet permeated the rural financial system. The part played by the commercial banks in agricultural finance was confined more to bigger landlords who possessed tangible marketable securities. The co-operative movement has covered a very small ground. The State has restrained its system of loans, more or less, to emergency aids. Since the time we have record till now, the money-lender has been occupying a pivotal position in the structure of the rural and urban finance.

But the second quarter of the twentieth century saw the promulgation of certain Acts like Usurious Loans Act, Money-lenders Act, etc., which tried to assuage the miserable situation of the debtors as a whole.

The Government of Bihar passed Bihar Money-lenders Act in 1938 to protect the farmers from the clutches of the village *mahajans*. By this Act, the money-lender is required to register himself and obtain a license for carrying on his business. He is also required to maintain regular account books and to furnish each debtor periodically, a signed statement of accounts in respect of each loan transaction showing the outstanding amount of principal and interest and the amount of every payment received from the debtor. The usual penalty for failure to keep accounts is the loss of interest and even of the costs of suits for the recovery of arrears. The entry of fictitious amount in excess of the actual amount of loan has been declared to be punishable offence. The Act has fixed the rate of interest as follows :—

	Secured loan.	Unsecured loan.
Single interest ..	9 per cent per annum	12 per cent per annum.
Compound interest	Prohibited	Prohibited.

The rates of interest on different types of loans have now been legally fixed at a reasonable level. The money-lenders have to maintain a systematic account of the debts given and the accounts thereof.

STATE BANK, JOINT STOCK BANKS AND OTHER LOAN AND INVESTMENT COMPANIES.

So far as the development of modern banking is concerned, the district lags far behind the others in the State. The Joint Stock Banks and limited companies are few and far between. The State Bank of India, Central Bank of India, and the Bank of Bihar operate in the district through their branches.

The State Bank of India, accepted also as the Banker of Government, has got two full-fledged branches in the district, one at Motihari and the other at Bettiah. It has also a Pay-office at Raxaul. Though the chief business of the Bank is Government work, every effort is being made to explore the opportunities for expansion of local trade and commerce.

The Bank of Bihar with its head office at Patna has got a branch office at Motihari. On the 31st December, 1952, the reserve fund of the Bank amounted to Rs. 15,17,290 and its paid up capital was Rs. 35,07,225. And in the year 1957 (by 15th November 1957), its total deposits were Rs. 32,00,000 and total advances Rs. 4,00,000. The advances made by the Bank were chiefly against sugar, cotton piece goods, foodgrains, etc.

The Central Bank of India, Ltd., has two branch offices in the district, one at Motihari and the other at Bettiah. It has also a Pay-office at Raxaul. The reserve fund and other reserves of the Bank amounted to Rs. 3,98,30,808 on 30th June 1951. Total deposits of the Bank were Rs. 5,12,000 as on 15th November 1957 and the total advances Rs. 23,15,000 as on 23rd November 1957. The advances made by the bank were as follows :—

	Rs.
(*i*) Against foodgrains and oils, etc. ..	24,000
(*ii*) Turmeric	14,000
(*iii*) *Kirana* goods	5,000
(*iv*) Cotton piece goods	1,35,000
(*v*) Sugar	13,80,000
(*vi*) Other composite advances	70,000

Both the Banks, i.e., the Bank of Bihar, Ltd., and the Central Bank of India, Ltd., are scheduled banks. The liabilities of these joint stock banks are their capital, reserve and deposits. The ratio of cash to deposits of the Bank of Bihar, Ltd., was 36 per cent on 31st December, 1952. The assets of the two banks consist of (*i*) cash, (*ii*) bills discounted, (*iii*) Government and other securities, (*iv*) loans and advances to individuals, firms and the money market and (*v*) fixed properties like building.

The usual business of the two banks consists of (*a*) receiving deposits of all kinds; (*b*) discounting internal bills and *hundis*, advancing loans against approved stocks and shares. They also allow limited overdrafts to approved customers for short period; (*c*) transmitting funds from one place to another on behalf of customers through bank drafts and letters of credit; (*d*) purchasing and selling of shares for clients on a commission basis; (*e*) keeping documents and jewellery in safe custody.

In fact they finance the internal trade but they have very little to do with the marketing of agricultural products. They sometimes give loans to big cultivators against the security of crops. The advances made in 1957 suggest the following :—

(*i*) A bank of so high a standing and resources like that of the Central Bank of India, Ltd., whose capital amounted to Rs. 3,98,30,808 on 30th June 1951, made total advances of only Rs. 23,15,000 in the district.

(*ii*) Only sugar and the cotton piece goods items, show an advance of money covering some lakhs, otherwise all the rest show quite below even half a lakh, rather even below quarter of a lakh. The foodgrains take only Rs. 24,000, turmeric Rs. 14,000 and *kirana* goods Rs. 5,000. This indicates that the sugar industry is the only major sector which is benefited by the banking system, taking Rs. 13,80,000. This is followed by the cotton piece goods items which take Rs. 1,35,000, but inasmuch as the advances on this head are quite scattered because of so many petty establishment for the sale of cotton piece goods, the amount cannot be said to be significant.

(*iii*) The foodgrain item taking only Rs. 24,000 and the turmeric, Rs. 14,000, explain the importance and consumption of turmeric, by the people and somewhat a canalised trade in this commodity.

Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks.

On the 25th March, 1904, the first Co-operative Societies Act was enacted and immediately after this the then Manager of the Bettiah Estate, late Mr. G. E. Rutherford, as an honorary organiser got the first of the co-operative societies registered. After a few years Mr. Haltum of Loheriah and Mr. Gordon of Moorla organised a number of co-operative societies in this district. But considerable momentum, in the co-operative movement, was given by Reverend G. J. Hodge of Motihari with the help of the then Sadar Subdivisional Officer, late Sayed Izhar Hussain, who organised the first co-operative society in the village Chattauni under Motihari police-station and later on till his departure in the year 1930, continued to give his full energy and time for the uplift of this organisation.

With a beginning as above, at present there are two Central Co-operative Banks in the district, one at Motihari and the other at Bettiah. The Motihari Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., was registered in the year 1919 and the Bettiah National Co-operative Bank in 1921.

The co-operative movement made some rapid progress till 1930, but its activities were strictly restricted to financing the primary societies. By 1929 and for a few years afterwards, owing to depression and fall of the prices of the agricultural output, both the Central Banks began to feel difficulty in realising the loans from its members and this was a hindrance in allowing further advances to the members of the affiliated societies. The great Earthquake in the year 1934 brought in further troubles for the societies. As a result, a considerable number of societies became inactive and a number of them were put under liquidation—40 under Motihari Central Co-operative Bank and 20 under Bettiah National Co-operative Bank.

In 1930, the then Registrar, Co-operative Societies, drew up a scheme for rehabilitation of co-operative societies and on Government's approval an enquiry was made into the condition of all the rural societies of Motihari and Bettiah numbering 135 and 119, respectively and the two Banks of this district. The rate of interest which was 12½ per cent to 18¾ per cent was reduced to 7 per cent and 8¾ per cent on secured and new loans, respectively. Secured loans were spread over a period of 20 years for payment by *kist*. The members who were retained were also allowed fresh crop loan of 8¾ per cent interest. The members who had no repaying capacity were termed eliminated and an estimated recovery from them was fixed which was to be realised from them amicably. In this way the societies were reconstructed.

As a result of this reconstruction, the Government took upon itself the responsibility of running the Central Banks on sounder lines. The Government further agreed to wipe out the accumulated loss of the Banks as was disclosed in the Reconstructed Audited Balance Sheet and also took upon itself to meet the running losses if any of these two Banks for five years, following the reconstruction of the Banks through the Bihar State Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Patna, which was then named as Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd.

Between 1948 and 1952, the banks took up the trading activities in the business of controlled commodities (i.e., sugar, salt, kerosene oil, cloth, etc.). This business meant a great fillip and a considerable number of co-operative societies were organised during this period to take up the business. In 1952, the Government withdrew the control over cloth and as a result the outstanding stock of cloth in both the Banks and Societies became a problem for being disposed of and actually the Banks had to sustain a loss in the sale of cloth in the open market. However, through financial assistance in the shape of subsidy, rebate and purchase of shares, etc., the co-operative movement in the district has been able to assist the public to some extent. By the end of June, 1957, the Sadar and Bettiah subdivisions had the following types of co-operative societies scattered all over the district :—

Motihari Subdivision.

	No.
1. Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies ..	307
2. Credit Co-operative Societies	22
3. Fishermen's Co-operative Societies	3
4. Weavers' Co-operative Societies	16
5. Co-operative Stores	14
6. Central Non-credit Society	1
7. Vishwakarma Industrial Co-operative Society ..	1
	364

Bettiah Subdivision.

	No.
1. Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies ..	155
2. Credit Co-operative Societies	15
3. Fishermen's Co-operative Societies	2
4. Weavers' Co-operative Society	1
5. Co-operative Stores	10
6. Harijan Co-operative Societies	3
7. Vishwakarma Industrial Co-operative Society ..	1
8. Amla Co-operative Society	1
9. Oilmen's Co-operative Societies	6
10. Vikash Mandal	4
11. Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies ..	267
12. L. S. Multi-purpose Co-operative Society ..	1
	466

The different types of activities of the co-operative societies as discussed above and the number of them given in the table do show the growing consciousness of the people towards the co-operative movement, but as regards the provision of finance through this channel to the economy of the district, the picture does not look so fascinating as it ought to be. The movement seems to be struggling for continuation and healthy growth. However, efforts are already being made to expand its scope and activities.

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE.

Previous to the nationalisation of the insurance business, a large number of insurance companies had their agents and representatives all over the district but none of them had set up any branch office. But now all have merged into the Life Insurance Corporation of India.

The most prevalent forms of insurance business are under the following heads: (*a*) Life, (*b*) Fire and (*c*) Motor Car Insurance. Generally the sugar factories have got their buildings insured under fire insurance scheme. Like other districts, here also agricultural and crop insurance have not begun as yet.

There was no branch of the Life Insurance Corporation in the district. It was being controlled by the branch office at Darbhanga, with field officers and agents spread over the entire district of Champaran. One Assistant Branch Manager (Development) has been, however, posted here recently (1958) and one sub-office under his charge is being opened very shortly. There are ten field officers (salaried) and a little over 200 agents working in the district out of which 75 are active. Till the year 1958, 985 policies have been accepted and are in force with a sum of Rs. 43,15,000 assured.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT.

So far as the State assistance to industries is concerned, not much headway has been made, though a few industrial loans to Harijans have been made and some particular factories of sugar and button have been given aid. This has also been dealt with in the "Industries Department" of the chapter "Other Departments", and the following list which shows the amount of assistance given to different private undertakings in this district in the First and the Second Five-Year Plans, all the more clarifies the position :—

Within the First Plan—

Rs. 16,624 as a loan for the development of Agricultural Implements manufacturing units.
Rs. 14,000 as a loan for the development of *Gur* Industry.
Rs. 3,000 as a loan for the development of Local Press.
Rs. 4,000 as a loan for the development of other industries.

After the First Plan till 1958—

Rs. 2,54,423 for the Model Tannery at Bettiah, a State Government undertaking.
Rs. 10,826 (during 1958-59) for manufacturing and training units of leather goods.
Rs. 2,053 (during 1958-59) as contingent expenses for the handicrafts scheme.

A sum of Rs. 62,947 has been sanctioned by the District Magistrate of Champaran under the Bihar State Aid to Industries Act, 1956, for starting and development of small-scale and cottage industries. The Subdivisional Officer, Sadar, has granted loan amounting to Rs. 24,196 under the same head during the year 1958-59.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Courses of Trade.

The position of Champaran on the map of Bihar has a particular significance for trade and commerce. The district is connected at two points with Nepal by railway. The railway line running due north from Sugauli terminates at Raxaul on the border of Nepal, from where Birganj, the second biggest town of Nepal and an important trading centre, is only a mile off. This railway line affords facilities for transport of rice, timber and other commodities to the territory of the Indian Union and cotton piece goods, spices and other manufactured goods from India to Nepal. The railway line of North-Eastern Railway affords a connection with the Nepal Light Railway.

The other section of North-Eastern Railway line running from Mehsi to Bhikhna Thori also touches Nepal near the latter place and affords facilities for transport of commodities. Besides, there are several road routes connecting the district with Nepal. Champaran district has a considerable mileage on the Nepal frontier. The boundary is marked by masonry pillars and often runs through jungle. The points of contact are not under any effective check and a considerable trade is reported to be done both ways by head-load and light bullock-carts.

The district is well connected with the districts of Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur by both rail and road. Champaran is also connected with Saran and Gorakhpur by road. The previous railway connection of Champaran with Gorakhpur has been suspended since the collapse of the railway bridge at Chhatauni Ghat in 1924. The proposal to restore the bridge has not yet been implemented.

The district is intersected by several rivers, but for trade purposes none, except Gandak, is useful. The river-borne traffic through Gandak also is not very considerable. The district is predominantly agricultural and has a more pronounced internal trade. The commodities entering in the internal trade include foodgrains, salt, spices, tea, cotton, woollen and silken piece goods, coal, kerosene oil, petrol, cosmetics and other luxury goods, cycles, radio receiving sets, crockeries, suit cases, iron and steel, etc. The commodities that enter into the external trade include foodgrains, pulses, turmeric, saltpetre, *khari* salt, oilseeds, sugar, molasses, jute, timber, railway sleeper, ballast, stone chips, button, leather boxes, scrap iron, etc. The statement below indicates the chief places and areas from where important commodities are imported and also the destinations of export trade :—

Names of commodities.	From where imported.
Cotton piece goods ..	Ahmedabad, Wadibunder, Navsari, Indore, etc.
Coal	Jharia Coalfield Area.
Salt	Sambhar Lake, Lavanpur, Basin Road, Bhandup, Mithapur, etc.
Iron and steel	Calcutta.
Grains and pulses ..	From Uttar Pradesh.
Kerosene oil	Budge Budge, Tinsukia, etc.
Petrol	Ditto.

Names of commodities.	Destination of export.
Khari salt	Dacca, Chittagong, Purnea and Calcutta.
Saltpetre	Coal and Iron-mine Areas.
Jute	Calcutta and suburbs.
Oilseeds	Ditto.
Timber	Ditto.
Sugar	Various destinations in India and neighbouring countries.
Molasses	Assam and Purnea districts in Bihar.
Foodgrains	Within Bihar.
Pulses	Ditto.
Railway sleepers	North-Western, Central and Eastern Railways.
Ballast	Within Bihar.
Stone chips	Ditto.
Hides	Mostly to Muzaffarpur from where it enters into the world market.
Turmeric	Mostly to Uttar Pradesh.
Scrap iron	South Bihar and Calcutta Area.
Bones	Calcutta.

So far as the quantity of goods imported into and exported outside the district by rail is concerned, the above table can be of some help. At least half the quantity of goods imported and exported by rail enters into the market by other means of transport, that is, trucks, bullock-carts, etc.

It is difficult to assess either the external or internal volume of trade, much less the value, in the district with any certainty as no reliable figures are available for the purpose. It is unfortunate that financial institutions like organised banks are uncommunicative on this account. Nevertheless, from other data we can arrive at some broad conclusions.

So far as agricultural commodities are concerned, it is mentioned by the Agricultural Statistics Department that in 1956-57 the total output of major foodgrains, pulses and jute was 72,62,804 maunds, 4,76,210 maunds and 2,30,294 maunds (including *sanai*), respectively. It is estimated that of the total quantity of foodgrains and pulses produced about 30 per cent enters into the market, either internal or external. The entire quantity of jute produced in the district enters into the market, barring aside a negligible quantity the producer keeps for his domestic use. Apart from these, Champaran is also important for the cultivation of turmeric. It is estimated that about two lakh maunds of turmeric is annually produced here and about 90 per cent of the total produce finds place in the market. In 1956-57, the total quantity of sugarcane produced in the district was 4,69,00,540 maunds. All the cane produced is sold, either to big factories or to small *gur* producers. The *gur* produced is also thrown into the local market eventually.

There are nine sugar mills in the district. These sugar mills in 1956-57 altogether produced 28,56,336 maunds of sugar and 12,76,357 maunds of molasses. Only a small fraction of the total quantity of these two products finds place in the local markets and the rest is either exported outside or kept in stock against future lifting.

The output of saltpetre is estimated to be about 20,000 maunds annually and the entire quantity goes into the market.

So far hides and bones are concerned, it is reported that a turnover of about Rs. 2,00,000 is annually done.

The major quantity of timber comes from the Government forests of the district. An idea of trade in timber can be had from the fact that in 1956-57 a sum of Rs. 4,47,831 was derived by the North Bihar Forest Division, Bettiah, from the sale of timber. This amount includes the timber sold to contractors by auction, the quantity utilised by the Forest Department and sold from the departmental depots as fire-wood or for other purposes. Besides timber, the Forest Department sells every year other minor forest produce like *sabe* grass, catechu, herbs, etc. These products account for a very small amount of revenue. In 1956-57 the revenue derived from other forest products was Rs. 49,126.

So far other commodities like cotton piece goods, coal, salt, iron and steel, etc., are concerned, not much could be said with any certainty.

The receipts of sales tax may also be a pointer to the volume and value of internal trade. The rate of sales tax is one pice per rupee of the turnover. Sales tax is not levied on all the commodities, but there are only a few items which are exempted from it. Another difficulty in the way is that sales tax is levied on only such businessmen whose annual turnover exceeds Rs. 15,000 and hence it cannot be a true pointer as many dealers have a very small turnover to come within the purview of sales tax. Yet another difficulty in the way is this that tax on the gold and bullion is not levied on their actual turnover, but the amount to be collected from each district is fixed at the provincial level. It is reported that the amount so fixed is generally much below the amount, had the same been assessed on the turnover basis like that of other commodities. Sales tax also does not give us separate amounts collected on the turnover of different commodities in trade so that an idea of the volume of trade in a particular commodity could be formed. It is also not possible to assess the number of tax-evaders and the amount of tax evaded. In spite of all this, the collection of sales tax could be used to indicate at least the value of internal trade in the district, specially in the absence of other kind of reliable statistics.

The amount of sales tax collected on the trade turnover of all the commodities, excepting gold and bullion, in 1956-57 was Rs. 8,86,420. As has been indicated above, the rate of tax is one pice per rupee of turnover, and on this basis it could be said that the trade turnover in the district of all the businessmen (excepting those trading in gold and bullion and other non-taxable commodities under the Sales Tax Act) having an annual turnover of Rs. 15,000 and more, was Rs. 5,70,93,404. In the same year the amount of tax collected on account of trade in gold and bullion came to Rs. 5,666 and on the basis of it, the trade turnover in these commodities could be assessed at Rs. 3,62,624. Since it is reported that the amount of tax on gold and bullion would have been three to four times more had the same been levied on turnover basis, we can assess the value of internal trade in gold and bullion at Rs. 11,00,000 or so per annum. Assuming that the amount of turnover in respect of those traders who are not subject to sales tax would not be less than the amount of turnover of those who pay sales tax (since the number of the former is several times more than that of the latter), it could be said that the value of internal trade in the district was approximately eleven and half crores to twelve crores of rupees in 1956-57.

The number of persons employed in trade and commerce will also help us in the investigation. According to the census of 1951, there were altogether 13,434 persons engaged in different kinds of trade and commerce, either as employees or as employer or as independent workers. The bulk of them, that is 10,019, were living in rural areas as against 3,415 in urban areas. The table below shows the number of persons engaged in different kinds of commerce :—

Nature of business.		Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Wholesale trade in food-stuffs ..	Rural ..	24	14	..	2	..	3	24	9
	Urban	41	39	8	4	3	15	30	20
	Total ..	65	53	8	6	3	18	54	29
Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	Rural ..	154	1	3	..	9	..	142	1
	Urban	233	78	40	25	95	26	98	27
	Total ..	387	79	43	25	104	26	240	28
Retail trade in food-stuffs	Rural ..	3,868	708	414	33	313	207	3,141	468
	Urban	411	205	141	35	30	97	240	72
	Total ..	4,279	913	555	68	343	304	3,381	541
Retail trade in textile and leather goods.	Rural ..	638	48	84	7	60	5	494	36
	Urban	564	101	290	..	137	39	137	62
	Total ..	1,202	149	374	7	197	44	631	98
Retail trade in fuel (including petrol)	Rural ..	98	11	11	..	4	2	83	9
	Urban	7	173	2	46	1	76	4	51
	Total ..	105	184	13	46	5	78	87	60
Retail trade otherwise unclassified ..	Rural ..	3,148	1,250	258	33	149	59	2,741	1,158
	Urban	554	255	142	107	228	69	184	79
	Total ..	3,702	1,505	400	140	377	128	2,925	1,237

Nature of business.		Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Real estate	Rural ..	1	11	..	..	..	..	1	11
	Urban	295	78	88	45	98	16	109	17
	Total ..	296	89	88	45	98	16	110	28
Insurance	Rural ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	Urban	..	12	..	12	..	..	..	..
	Total ..	..	12	..	12	..	..	..	..
Money-lending, banking and other financial business.	Rural ..	33	12	2	2	4	..	27	10
	Urban	369	..	105	..	10	..	254	..
	Total ..	402	12	107	2	14	..	281	10
Total in every kind of business	Rural ..	7,964	2,055	772	77	539	276	6,653	1,702
	Urban	2,474	941	816	274	602	338	1,056	329
	Total ..	10,438	2,996	1,588	351	1,141	614	7,709	2,031

It may be mentioned here that the census figures in this connection appear to have been under-estimated. There would not be much of spontaneity to return one as in trade and commerce because of the allergy against being made a payee of sales tax or income-tax.

TRADE CENTRES.

Regulated Markets.

There are no regulated markets in the district worthy of the name. In a limited sense we may say that the market of sugarcane has been regulated under the Bihar Sugar Factories Act, 1937, and the Rules framed thereunder in 1938. Since the passing of this Act and Rules thereunder, the price of cane is fixed from year to year and the canegrowers are assured of payment of the price of sugarcane within the period specified in the Act on account of the establishment of a number of Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies and Unions under the Act. A fuller account of the effects and provisions of this Act will be found in the Chapter ' Industries '.

Centres of wholesale business and mandis.

There are mainly four commodities of importance, namely, cloth, grains, jute and turmeric, in which some wholesale business is done in the district, the first two being of greater importance. As the town of Muzaffarpur in the neighbouring district of the same name has many large wholesale merchants in cloth, many retail-sellers of Champaran have direct contact with them. However, the petty and less resourceful dealers of the district have their dealings with the local wholesale merchants. So far grains are concerned, much of the paddy produce is procured by the rice mills of the district. The northern part of the district is the chief paddy producing area and many rice mills are situated in that portion.

The chief centres of wholesale business in the district are Motihari, Bettiah, Raxaul, Adapur, Sikta, Narkatiaganj, Bagaha and Chainpatia. Wholesale trading in cloth is done at Motihari, Bettiah and Raxaul. Bettiah has been the chief marketing centre in the district since long on account of being the seat of the ex-Bettiah Raj. It continues to be headquarters of a subdivision. Motihari has acquired importance by virtue of being the headquarters of the district. Raxaul is situated at the Indo-Nepal border and is connected with the interior of Nepal by a Light Railway of that country and also with the interior of Champaran and the rest of Bihar by two metre gauge lines of the North-Eastern Railway. Besides, a good road connecting Raxaul with Kathmandu in Nepal has been built.

Wholesale trading in grains is carried on at each of the wholesale trading centres of the district, but the most important of them are Adapur and Bagaha. Adapur is situated in the northern portion of the district in a very fertile tract of land. Normally famines do not touch this area. In the great famine of 1897 it did not suffer any loss. Adapur is on the railway line running from Kundwa-Chainpur to Bagaha and has several road connections with the interior of the district. It has three big rice mills. Bagaha is also situated in a fertile tract of land in the north-western portion of the district. It is the terminus station of the railway line running from Kundwa-Chainpur to Bagaha. Earlier this line was connected with the Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh. Even now much of the traffic in grains and timber pass between the two districts, although the river Gandak impedes the smooth flow to come extent. During cane-crushing season a pontoon bridge is fixed up on Gandak at the site of the old broken railway bridge. The place is connected by road with the far south-eastern and northern tracts of the district.

Almost all the wholesale trading centres in the district have developed a grain *mandi*. A description of some of the important *mandis* is given below.

Motihari grain mandi.—This *mandi* is situated in the heart of Motihari Bazar which is at a distance of about one and a half miles from the Motihari Collectorate and about two miles from Motihari Railway Station. This *mandi* is the property of the local municipality and is leased to contractors. The area of the *mandi* is about 12 *bighas*. People of the locality intending to enter into sale or purchase of grains assemble here.

The contractor of the *mandi* charges rupee one per truck-load, annas eight per tyre cart-load and annas four per cart-load of the grain brought at the *mandi*. This amount is paid by the seller. There are several other charges which a grain merchant is required to bear. There are weighing charge, *dharmada* and *goshala* charges. The rate of weighment charge is half an anna per bag when the person weighing the commodity is not required to put the commodity on the balance and again to put the same off the balance. If he is required to do so, he is paid at the rate of one anna per bag. The weighment charge is paid by the seller and purchaser both. The charge for *dharmada* and *goshala* both together is one anna per hundred of the turnover and is paid by the seller.

The weighing charge is actually the wages of the person who weighs grains, whereas *dharmada* and *goshala* are meant for charitable purposes, the former being used for religious charities such as giving alms to beggars, constructing *dharmshalas* (inns), etc., and the latter for giving aid to institutions where old kine and oxen are given shelter. There is no organisation to administer the amount so collected for *dharmada* and *goshala* which is to be found in some other districts of the State. This leaves the merchants concerned unfettered to dispose of the fund according to his own will.

Bettiah grain mandi.—Unlike Motihari grain *mandi* this *mandi* is not the property of the local municipality. It was formerly the property of the ex-Bettiah Raj and has now vested in the State. The practice of leasing out the *mandi* to contractor is also in vogue here. The area of the *mandi* is about 6 to 7 acres. The contractor's charge at this *mandi* is the same as that at Motihari *mandi.*

The weighment charge at this *mandi* is six *naye paise* per bag and is paid by the purchasers. *Dharmada* and *goshala* charges at this *mandi* is also the same as that of Motihari *mandi* but the amount is paid by the purchaser and seller both.

It is reported that the turnover of grains in money equivalent at this *mandi* is about Rs. 20,000 per day.

Raxaul grain mandi.—This *mandi* is situated at Raxaul. This has an average annual arrival of 70,000 maunds of paddy and 60,000 maunds of rice from the nearby villages. The rates of market charges are: wheighment 0.12 nP. per bag, *dharmada* 0.25 nP. per Rs. 100 and *dhalai* 0.74 per Rs. 100.

Adapur grain mandi.—Adapur grain *mandi* is situated in the thana headquarters bearing the same name. The average annual arrival of paddy at the *mandi* is 2,58,000 maunds and that of rice 1,50,000 maunds from the nearby villages. Weighment charge at the *mandi* is 0.05 nP. per bag and *dharmada* charge 0.06 nP. per Rs. 100. *Dhalai* charge is not in vogue there.

Sikta grain mandi.—The *mandi* is situated at the thana headquarters bearing the same name and has an average annual arrival of 3,20,000 maunds of paddy and 2,00,000 maunds of rice from the nearby villages. Weighment charge at the *mandi* is 0.08 nP. per bag and *dharmada* charge is 0.01 nP. per maund. There is no *dhalai* charge in vogue there.

Narkatiaganj grain mandi.—The *mandi* is situated at thana headquarters bearing the same name. Average annual arrival of paddy is 1,50,000 maunds and that of rice 60,000 maunds at the *mandi* from the local villages. Market charges are: weighment and handling 0.12 nP. per bag, *dharmada* 0.09 nP. per Rs. 100 and *dhalai* 2½ per cent.

Ghorasahan grain mandi.—This is also situated at the thana headquarters of the same name. The average annual arrival of paddy is 1,00,000 maunds and that of rice 65,000 maunds from nearby villages. Market charges are: weighment 0.06 nP. per bag, *dharmada* 0.02 nP. per Rs. 100 and *dhalai* ½ seer per maund.

Chainpatia grain mandi.—Chainpatia *mandi* is also situated at the thana headquarters of the same name. The average annual arrival of paddy is 1,55,000 maunds and that of rice 90,000 maunds from nearby villages. Market charges are: weighment and handling 0.09 nP. per bag, *dharmada* 0.15 nP. per Rs. 100 and *dhalai* nil.

Apart from these there are several other small *mandis* like Thori, Bagaha, etc. Barring the municipal *mandis* all other *mandis* are settled annually by bid by the local Government official, viz., *Anchal Adhikari.*

At all these *mandis* mostly locally produced and sometimes Nepal imported grains like paddy, rice, gram, *khesari, tisi, arhar,* wheat, etc., are sold, the first two being most predominant.

Many of the *mandis* are in the bordering area of Nepal and Champaran and there is a considerable interchange of trade in grains with Nepal. The records of old correspondence in English kept in Champaran Record Room show that a considerable volume of trade with Nepal was also noticed by the early British administrators. There used to be at one time offices to record the volume of such trade. The proximity of the grain centres to Nepal is a problem whenever there is any acuteness in the supply of grains either in Nepal or in the Champaran district.

Retail Marketing Centres.

The main retail marketing centres in the district are at Motihari, Bettiah, Barachakia, Mehsi, Sugauli, Chainpatia, Narkatiaganj, Ramnagar (Harinagar), Raxaul, and Bagaha. At all these places retail shops of almost all the commodities locally consumed are found. Even from the retail marketing point of view, Bettiah Motihari, Raxaul and Narkatiaganj are more important than other places, of which Bettiah is the most important and the largest in the district. Retail shops of some of the articles like radio receiving sets, cycles, etc., are to be found only at these four places. These places have also got branch or pay offices of some of the joint stock banks as well as of the State Bank of India.

It is estimated that there are altogether 3,900 shops and establishments at all the abovementioned places, of which about 1,000 are at Motihari, about 1,600 at Bettiah, about 300 at Raxaul and all the other markets account for the rest, the number of shops varying between 100 to 200 at different places. It is estimated that about one-fourth of the number of shops found at the important marketing centres are scattered in the villages.

Motihari is the only market place in the district where the provisions of Bihar Shops and Establishments Act, 1953, have been enforced from the 1st April, 1957. There is one Labour Officer in the district with his headquarters at Motihari who has to enforce the provisions of this Act. Under the provisions of this Act every shop and establishment (excepting medical and betel shops, cinema houses and hotels) are to remain closed for one day in a week. Opening hours for shops are also regulated under the Act and the employees are given some protection as regards the payment of their salary or wages.

The retail marketing centres in the district are well distributed. They do not present as busy a sight as the markets in the heart of cities. Bargaining is common. As the *mahajans* who run the retail trade are usually their own bankers, the want of banks in the rural areas presents no problem.

Fairs and Melas and other Rural Markets.

The fairs and *melas* held in the district may be divided into two parts, viz., seasonal and permanent. Seasonal fairs are those which are held in the particular season and the time of such fairs is determined by the lunar calendar, whereas permanent fairs are those which are held throughout the year once or twice a week irrespective of the seasons and are locally known as *hats*. Seasonal fairs are basically religious in character, whereas permanent fairs are commercial in its composition.

The seasonal fairs in the district are held at Arreraj, Kessariya, Rajpur, Bettiah, Govindganj, Tribeni, Sahodra (Tharuhat), Madhuban, Jhakbija, Lauriya Nandan Garh and Chainpatia. By far the most important among the seasonal fairs are held at Arreraj, Bettiah and Madhuban, the first being important on account of its frequency and the latter two on account of their duration period.

At Arreraj fairs are held on six occasions in the year, viz., *Falguni Triodasi, Basant Panchimi, Sheoratri, Baisakhi Triodasi, Jestha Dashara* and *Anant Chaturdasi*. The congregation on the occasion of *Falgun Krishna Triodasi* is the largest and next comes *Basant Panchimi*. On the former occasion the *mela* lasts for about a week and on the latter occasion the duration period varies between five to seven days. On the other occasions the *mela* lasts generally for three to four days. Arreraj has a famous Shiva temple and a legion of men, women and children visit the temple on every *mela* occasion. It is estimated that about 50 to 60 thousand people congregate here on such occasions. The bulk of the *mela* visitors are basically rural in composition. They also make purchases for domestic purposes at the *mela*. The value of the transactions goes up to a few lakhs on each *mela* occasion.

At Bettiah the fair is held on the *Dashera Durga Puja* and lasts for about fifteen days. It attracts a vast number of people from the neighbouring villages at the time of *mela*. It is estimated that their number does not fall much short of a lakh or so. The most important feature of this *mela* is the organisation of a cattle fair where several thousand cattle are bought and sold. The cattle fair also attracts sellers and purchasers from the neighbouring districts of Muzaffarpur and Saran as well as from Nepal. The cattle brought for sale here are generally of local breed and are poor in quality. All kinds of commodities required in daily use are sold at this *mela*. It is the largest fair in the district and the value of goods transacted here ranges between forty to fifty lakhs.

The *mela* at Madhuban is also held during *Dashera Durga Puja* and lasts for fifteen days. This *mela* is also well known as a cattle fair. However, it is comparatively less important in every respect than that of Bettiah *mela*. It is estimated that about 40 to 50 thousand people assemble here at the time of the *mela*. The value of transactions is estimated to be 15 to 20 lakhs.

The other important fairs in the district are held at Rajpur, Govindganj and Sahodra, each lasting for ten days. The *mela* at Rajpur is held on the occasion of *Durga Puja*, at Govindganj at the time of *Kartika Purnima* and at Sahodra at the time of *Ramnavami*. Rajpur fair is important for being a cattle fair, Govindganj for being a fair on the bordering area of Saran and Champaran and Sahodra for being a *mela* of the Tharuhat area.

The other seasonal fairs are of more or less equal importance, each lasting for about a week, excepting that held at Kessariya which lasts only for three to four days. *Mela* at Tribeni is held on the occasion of *Magh Amawas*, at Lauriya Nandan Garh in *Agrahan*, at Chainpatia on the occasion of *Kartik Purnima*, at Jhakbija on the occasion of *Chaitra Navami*, and at Kessariya at the time of *Push Amawas*. The fair at Tribeni is of some special importance on account of being in the backward Tharuhat area.

Apart from these, several other seasonal *melas* are also held in the district, but they are of smaller importance and last for only a day or two.

The non-seasonal or permanent *melas* with a slant for sale and purchase only are locally known as *hats*. The number of such *hats* is quite considerable in the district. A *hat* is held once or twice a week. Unlike seasonal fairs, these *hats* are entirely held for commercial purposes. The size of *hats* varies according to the area and population served by them. Generally 1,500 to 2,000 people from the neighbouring villages gather at these *hats* to purchase commodities for domestic use. At these *hats* commodities like cloth, cereals, condiments, vegetables, etc., are sold. Itinerant merchants go there to sell commodities. Some grain merchants also depute their men to purchase grains at these *hats*. Many transactions at these *hats* are carried out on barter system and it is common sight to find village folks exchanging grains for vegetables, condiments, etc. Sweet-meat and aerated-water shops at these *hats* are also not uncommon.

Apart from *hats* and fairs there are several permanent *bazars* in the district. Each and every village has a few shops which cater to the needs of village folks. Generally at these shops commodities like salt, mustard oil, kerosene oil, *ghee*, condiments, pulses, cereals, etc., are sold. Cloth shops are also to be found at every village of some importance. A village or a township having several such shops of a comparatively bigger size are locally known as *bazars*. Much of the retail business in the district is carried through these *bazars*.

An Anchalwise list of *hats, bazars* and *melas* as settled by the Government in 1957-58 is given below :—

Names of *Anchals*.	No. of *hats* and *bazars* settled.	No. of *melas* settled.
1. Bettiah	36	8
2. Sikta	11	9
3. Bagaha I	11	4
4. Lauriya	15	2
5. Ramnagar	2	4
6. Shikarpur	21	8
7. Dhanaha	10	1
8. Sidhawan (Bagaha II) ..	9	2
9. Puner	12	1
10. Motihari	19	2
11. Adapur	22	2
12. Mehsi	11	1
13. Chakia	40	5
14. Turkaulia	15	2
15. Dhaka	10	1
16. Chiraiya	3	2
17. Patahi	5	1
18. Pakrideyal	10	..
19. Arreraj	41	8
20. Sugauli	11	4

Apart from the number of *hats, bazars* and *melas* mentioned in the above list, it is reported that there were some more in the district which had not been settled and were under the possession of private persons. However, it is reported that their number was not considerable.

Co-operation in Wholesale and Retail Trade.

Although there is not much of organised co-operation in wholesale and retail trade, certain amount of co-operation between the two types of trades does exist on individual footing. Every retail dealer expects some co-operation from the wholesaler in the shape of credit facility and the latter generally does not hesitate to give this facility, if the particular retail dealer happens to be his tried and trusted regular customer. This co-operation depends also on the business reputation of a retail dealer and the financial capacity of a wholesaler.

State Trading.

State trading is normally absent in its strict sense in this district. Barring aside the sale of timber and other forest products from the State-owned forests, the State does not produce locally any commodity which enters into the local market. The State does sell some commodities like fertilizers, etc., but they are meant for agricultural improvements. Electric power produced under the auspices of the State Government is, strictly speaking, not done so for any business motive. During scarcity period the State Government does open fair price shops, but here also business motive is not at the root.

MERCHANT, CONSUMER AND LABOUR ASSOCIATION.

As regards Merchants' Association, it is gathered that there are two such associations, viz., the Champaran Merchants' Chamber, Motihari and Arhati Vyapar Mandal, Bettiah, in the district. But none of these two agencies has acquired any significant position among the local merchants. None of these associations are either registered or affiliated to any recognised Chamber of Commerce of the State. The membership of Champaran Merchants' Chamber is open to all types of traders, but that of Arhati Vyapar Mandal is open to only commission agents. Traders in turmeric are more associated with the latter.

Both these associations are only in their cradle. The Arhati Vyapar Mandal, Bettiah, was established in 1956 while Champaran Merchants' Chamber, Motihari, was founded by the close of 1957.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The common measure of weights is the seer. Before the enforcement of Bihar Weights Act, 1947, in Champaran in 1951 the weight of seer varied even from *bazar* to *bazar* which has now been replaced to a considerable extent.

The weight in rural areas varies considerably from one part to another part. A seer is made of several *gandas* which nominally is equal to 4 pice, but its value varies immensely. An examination of 121 *gandas* of *lohia* pice, viz., the dumpy pice containing a larger mixture of iron and was once in use in the district, has showed no less than 60 values varying from 531 to 675 grains, the mean being 600 grains. In Sadar subdivision the local seer is generally equal to 10 *gandas,* but this also varies considerably from village to village. These measures are also used for liquids, such as milk and oil, as the capacity of the vessels is determined by weighing the contents with *lohia* pice of a quantity representing a seer, half seer, quarter seer, etc.

In Bettiah subdivision the recognised local seer is of 11 *gandas,* but elsewhere the divergence is very great. Once in the northern portion of Bagaha and Dhanaha Gorakhpuri coin was in use while in the rest of the subdivision *lohia* pice was used. Where the Gorakhpuri pice was in vogue the measure of a local seer varies from 24 to 30 *gandas,* whereas where lohia pice formed the standard the local seer varies from 8½ *gandas* to 11½ *gandas.* In certain areas solid commodities are weighed according to *lohia* pice, whereas liquids are weighed according to Gorakhpuri pice.

So far *hats, bazars,* etc., are concerned, the Bihar Weights Act, 1947 has been enforced from 1951. Under this Act the standard weight is a seer of 16 *chataks,* each *chatak* consisting of 5 *tolas* and a *tola* is equal to the weight of one rupee metal coin (legal tender) in vogue in India. Much of the disparity that existed in weights at different *bazars* of the district before the enforcement of the Bihar Weights Act has now been removed. Under the provisions of this Act weights and scales are verified and replaced whenever found defective and the persons found using them are prosecuted. For the verification of weights some fee is charged per unit of weight verified. The fee varies according to the volume of the weight verified. The Act is not yet enforced in the rural areas.

The following tables indicate the progress achieved under the Act :—

TABLE I.

(*Seizure and Replacement.*)*

Year.	Seizure.		Replacement.	
	Weights.	Scales.	Weights.	Scales.
1955-56	869	391	2,649	229
1956-57	693	634	2,295	279
1957-58	446	228	196	46

TABLE II.

(*Verification and Revenue Collection.*)

Year.	Verification.		Revenue Collection.		
	Weights.	Scales.	Rs.	a.	p.
1952-53	9,969	1,212	7,172	9	0
1953-54	14,048	991	8,491	10	0
1954-55	8,273	1,770	7,939	5	0
1955-56	13,406	2,946	10,022	2	0
1956-57	8,465	1,907	7,917	1	0
1957-58	11,496	1,800	9,598	3	0

The measures of length given below are prevalent in the district in respect of cloth. At times they vary, specially in rural areas, and the forearm of the tallest man in the village is taken to be the standard length which generally is 18½ inches. For measuring land the *laggi* is in common use which consists of so many *haths* (forearms)—7¾ *haths* in Motihari and 8 *haths* or more in the north of the district. The actual length of the *laggi* depends on the length assigned to the *hath* which varies considerably from one part of the district to another part :—

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* (Some fluctuations in the year to year figures of seizure, replacement, verification, etc., are apparent. It is reported that for the whole district there is only one Inspectors of Weights and Measures. At times the District Agricultural Marketing Inspector is required to take up the duty of the District Inspector of Weights and Measures, specially as a stop-gap arrangement at the time of latter's transfer, leave etc. This affects the normal work.)

1 *girah* is equal to 2¼ inches.
1 *bitta* is equal to 4 *girah* or 9 inches.
1 *hath* is equal to 2 *bittas* or 18 inches.
1 *gaz* is equal to 2 *haths* or 1 yard.

TRADE ASSOCIATIONS.

There are two trade associations of small importance in the district. They are Grain Merchants' Association, Motihari, and Bullion Merchants' Association, Champaran. The former was founded in 1957 and the latter in 1946-47. The Grain Merchants' Association has a membership of 40. The Bullion Merchants' Association has a membership of 275 persons, of which about 125 are registered for sales tax purpose. This Association claims to have succeeded in averting an imposition of sales tax on bullion trade on turnover basis. None of the two Associations are registered. The Grain Merchants' Association's constitution indicates that in a way it wants to establish somewhat a regulated market at Motihari in grains. It also envisages to manage the amount deducted as *dharmada* charge. It is functioning under the Champaran Merchants' Chamber, Motihari.

It is reported that several business magnets and industrialists of the district are members of Bihar Chamber of Commerce, Patna and Calcutta Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta. Local members of Bihar Chamber of Commerce are generally the resident business magnets and industrialists of the district and those of Calcutta Chamber of Commerce do not actually reside in the district, but have their business interest there.

MODE OF DISSEMINATION OF TRADE NEWS.

There is no means to carry local trade news from one place to another in the district. So far as the trade news of markets in general are concerned, they percolate to the local merchants through daily papers, radio receiving sets, telephones and telegrams. Correspondence for the purpose are also entered into. Many big merchants of the district purchase the daily papers published from Patna, namely, *Indian Nation, Searchlight, Aryavarta, Vishwamitra, Pradeep*, etc., while others subscribe to the dailies of Calcutta like *Statesman, Amrita Bazar Patrika*, etc. Some of the businessmen have their relatives, friends and associates at big trading centres like Calcutta, Bombay, Kanpur, Ahmedabad, Patna, etc., and manage to get important trade news through telephone and telegraph.

CHAPTER VII.

COMMUNICATIONS.

Development of Communications.

More than a century ago Champaran had not a single road worthy of the name. In 1800 the Collector of Saran (which at that time included Champaran) reported that as far as his knowledge and enquiries extended there were no roads in the district except one in Saran. Fair-weather tracks undoubtedly existed but no roads fit for cart traffic. The soft soil of the district made possible to cut a cart track after the crops were removed. There was not much of trade and commerce within or outside the district and the produce of the villages was taken to the nearest market in bullock-carts or ponies or by head-load.

There was another reason why this frontier district of Bihar did not have much of communication and transport. The physical contiguity to Nepal was not much of a boon. Robberies were common and it was easy to escape to Nepal after committing crime within Champaran. Before the advent of the British, Sarkar Saran, which included Champaran as well, had a number of Rajas and Zamindars and they were all anxious to make as much money as possible but very few of them worried to give proper roads within their areas. They were like some small satraps in their jurisdiction. It has also to be remembered that the present day requirements for making good roads like stone-chips, bitumen, etc., were not available before. It is only recently that the stone-chips of an inferior kind are being quarried from Bhikna Thori. The rivers and streams were also a problem. Floods were also an impediment.

The Nepal wars were the first landmark in the recent history of development of communications. Some good military roads had to be made during the Nepal wars and lines of communication were established between the cantonments along the frontier. In 1830 the Collector reported that the road from Sattar Ghat *via* Dhaka to the cantonment at Mallai in the Muzaffarpur district was in a tolerable state of repair as also were the roads from the cantonment on the Nepal border between Tirhut and Gorakhpur. He added that there were two other good roads, the one from Bettiah to Tribeni and the other from Bettiah to Ramnagar for which Champaran was indebted to a visit from the Governor-General. He pointed out that there were numerous old roads from north to south and east to west but until they were repaired and opened for " land carriage " very little trade could be carried on by the little Gandak which communicated with the Ganga.

This district had flourishing opium and saltpetre industries in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Saltpetre was not confined to any particular areas. It was necessary to have fairly good roads for the transport of both the finished and unfinished goods in connection with these two industries. There was no question of any power-vehicle and bullock carts, hand carts and horse-drawn vehicles were in use. These conveyances did not require a modern road with a proper sole and macadamed face.

Another great landmark which improved the means of communication was the sugar and indigo plantations which commenced from towards the end of the eighteenth century. Although strictly licensed, Europeans were encouraged to settle down and acquire consolidated blocks of land for sugar and indigo plantation. In the first few decades of the nineteenth century we find that planters had penetrated into the interior of the district and were actively engaged in the cultivation of sugar and indigo. Now both these crops are such that the produce must be utilised quickly. The English Factory at Patna with various sub-stations in other districts encouraged trade and commerce. Good lines of communications were a necessity for indigo and sugar planters. The only modes of conveyance at that time were either carts, ponies or bullocks or human agency. There was a development of communications on these lines.

A letter dated the 1st May 1800, from the Revenue and Judicial Department to William Cowper, President and Members of the Board of Revenue, is accompanied by an order of the Governor-General in Council in which the Magistrates had to give a detailed report of the existing roads, how and in what manner they were repaired, what roads were particularly necessary and how they could best be made, whether by convicts and otherwise, what regulations were necessary to avoid encroachment and keep them in repair, whether Zamindars could do it without taking it to be a hardship, whether the construction of any bridge was necessary or at what expense. The Magistrates were further required to report on the condition of ferries, who maintained the boats, how the expenses were met, what arrangements were necessary for the future regulation of ferries.

In the same letter there was a directive to the Magistrate to report on the condition of the streets in towns and cities and to widen them when necessary such as, in the event of occasional fire. The Magistrate was asked to look into the question of possible measures for preventing outbreak of fire and for supply of water by digging tanks in the principal towns. Here also the help of the convicts was mentioned. There was a further directive to report on the clearance of jungles and draining of water-pools, deepening the river beds, checking the growth of bamboo-groves and other measures to improve agriculture, commerce, police, health and the general condition of the country. The Magistrates were further instructed to make a priority list owing to the importance and urgency of the items and also suggest ways and means for meeting the expenditure, whether there should be a toll or any other means not liable to material objection.

In this connection a particular mention has to be made about the work done by the convicts even in chains for the construction of the main roads and embankments in this district. There is a large number of letters in the district archive to show that the able-bodied convicts were freely utilised for such purposes.

In the Bengal and Agra Guide and Gazetteer of 1841 it is stated :—" In Champaran the roads are excellent and kept in good and substantial repair by the indigo planters at their own expense. From Mehsi the most eastern part of Champaran to within a few *kos* of Bettiah, a distance of nearly 50 miles the roads are excellent." The other roads at that time were not so good, the road leading to Sattar Ghat on the Gandak, which was the high road to Champaran, being described as hardly passable for five or six months in the year. The road from Bagaha to Bettiah was in parts merely a grass pathway and the cross roads from one village to another were wholly neglected except in a few instances where they were repaired by Zamindars.

F. J. Halliday, Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, visited Champaran in the month of March, 1855. For his perusal F. A. Glover, Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector of Champaran, had left a note as Glover was quitting the district on leave. His memorandum is number 69 in the Revenue Department's Proceedings for 8th March, 1855 which is available in the Archives of West Bengal Government. This is a useful report which could be utilised here. Glover had dwelt on the incidence of crime, the oppression of the landlords and the commercial importance of some of the places in Champaran, namely, Bettiah, Govindganj, Mehsi, Sangrampoor, Kessariya and Motihari. Glover wanted the revival of the posting of a Deputy Magistrate at Bettiah and recommended that there should also be a Deputy Magistrate posted at Govindganj. He had also pointed out that the frontier line was of more than 100 miles on the border of Nepal and this was a factor that affected the incidence of crime. Glover mentioned that the ferries of the district were mostly in the hands of the Zamindars. The traffic of the district at that time was closely connected with the river traffic and some of the *ghats* had big annual receipts which went into the pocket of the landlords who did not care for the improvement of the *ghats* or roads. According to Glover, during the cold season about 10,000 carts passed every day over the Champaran Ferry Fund Roads which could only be done if the receipts were in the hands of the Ferry Fund Committee.

From this report we find that at that time (1855) Champaran was the only district in Bihar that exported rice as all the other districts imported it. Champaran's trade consisted exclusively of the products of the soil, namely, opium, indigo, sugar and rice and the Gandak was navigable for large boats as far as Bagaha. The average outturn of opium was 14,000 to 16,000 maunds. The increasing quantities of these products called for further improvement of road and river communications in the interest of the men who grew them.

The Lieutenant-Governor was fully impressed with the conclusions of the note of Glover. He was convinced that the roads and ferries must improve and that there should be postings of Magistrate in the interior. The Lieutenant-Governor further wanted that the insecure land tenures of the *raiyats* should be closely looked into and the constant increase of the rents of the villagers by each change of landlord should stop. The high incidence of crime was also to be curbed. All this meant that communications had to improve. There is no doubt that from 1855 the roads came to be much improved.

The next landmark in the history of the development of the communications was the movement of 1857. Along with some other districts in Bihar, Champaran was also in ferment. The neighbouring districts of Muzaffarpur and Saran in Bihar and some of the eastern districts of Uttar Pradesh on the border of Champaran were also affected. The rivers had to be constantly patrolled. Major Holmes in command of the Twelfth Irregular Cavalry at Sugauli was killed on the 26th July and the regiment revolted. Martial law had to be proclaimed by Government. Rana Jang Bahadur of Nepal came to the help of British and two Gurkha regiments from Nepal arrived in Champaran district in August. Towards the end of December, Jang Bahadur with his Nepalese army arrived at Bettiah. The military movements were necessarily slow because of bad communications.

The 1857 movement showed that proper communications were a necessity for proper administration. The military movements and particularly the march of the Nepalese army must have been hampered considerably by the existing bad communications. The old Correspondence Volumes studied at Motihari Record Room show frequent references to the Magistrate for the supply of ration, horned cattle, hackeries, etc., for the troops. The want of good road was felt very badly as the arrangements could not be quick.

In 1866 Champaran was converted into an independent district. The District Board was established in 1886, when the provisions of the Bengal Local Self-Government Act was extended to Champaran. From the very beginning the District Board has been entrusted with the important work of communications. Although it cannot be said that the District Board made any phenomenal achievements by way of improving the means of communication, but it has to be admitted that the roads were gradually improved. By 1876 there were 26 roads with the total length of 438 miles. In 1906 the District Board maintained 1,307 miles of roads, of which 15 miles were metalled and 1,066 miles were unmetalled, while village roads accounted for 226 miles. The small proportion of metalled roads was due to the fact that in the greater portion of the district good road-metal was not available, and that, rents being low, the resources of the District Board were insufficient for the construction of expensive roads.

The roads in 1906 may be described as fairly sufficient for all parts of the district, except the north of the Bettiah subdivision. There were, indeed, three main roads from the railway to different points in that tract, with one road running right across the centre of it; but at that time there was no network of subsidiary roads as in the rest of the district, and wheeled traffic was possible only in the dry season. The rude tracks along which carts managed to find their way were interrupted by the numerous water-courses from the hills; and for the most part produce had to be conveyed by pack-bullocks.

According to O'Malley in the 1907 edition of the *District Gazetteer of Champaran*, "The most important roads are those which lead from the Nepal border to the railway and the banks of the Gandak. Bridges are comparatively few in number over even the more important streams, and there is only one of any large size, a bridge, 400 feet long, over the Sikrana at Chainpatia, which was constructed in 1885. There was another bridge, 700 feet long, over the same river at Sugauli, but this was carried away by the floods of 1898.

"Owing to the paucity of bridges, ferries are numerous and largely used. The principal ferries are those on the Great Gandak at Sattar Ghat (Dhekaha), Sangrampur, Gobindganj, Bariarpur, Pipra, Ratwal and Bagaha; and on the Sikrana at Lalbeghia, Piparpanti, Jatwa and Sugauli. The number of minor ferries is very considerable, and the District Board obtains a not unimportant part of its income from their lease."

This picture could be compared with the next revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran*, published in 1938 (containing information till 1932) where it was mentioned, "There are now 91½ miles of metalled roads and 2,264½ miles unmetalled roads, total 2,356 miles of road in the district. Of these 59 miles metalled roads and 2,241 miles unmetalled roads are maintained by the district and the local boards. The remainder are kept up mainly by the municipalities. The proportion of metalled roads is very small. This is due to the fact that good road metal is not available in most parts of the district and the resources of the district board are not sufficeint for the construction and maintenance of expensive roads. The area to be dealt with is large and with the continual increase of motor traffic particularly motor buses, plying regularly for hire, it is difficult to maintain the roads in good condition. The most important roads are those which lead from the Nepal border to the banks of the Gandak."

The District Board had the District Magistrate as the Chairman for decades. The European planters also had a considerable influence on the affairs of the District Board. The result was that the roads were made connecting the different factories and thus the main arteries were fairly well looked after. The areas in which the planters were not interested were rather neglected.

Another significant factor affecting the problem of communication in this district is that the Public Works Department came into existence for roads only as late as 1946-47. Prior to this the Public Works Department only looked after the buildings but did not have anything to do with the roads. With the advent of the Public Works Department taking up some of the roads there was a distinct improvement and a rapid expansion of road communications.

Before passing on to the modern phase it has to be mentioned that the district has had the advantage of a fair sprinkling of forest roads and canal roads. This district along with the other districts of North Bihar have got a number of fairs and *melas*. Very big fairs have been held since many decades at Bettiah and Arreraj and other places. The frequent social meets of the European planters was another incentive to road facilities. Roads within the forests were a necessity for the proper exploitation of the forests. Similarly with the introduction of the Tribeni Canal system in 1909 followed by other canals and pynes the district was given a fair mileage of canal roads. Although cart traffic was prohibited on the forest and canal roads they helped to connect villages and to encourage a certain amount of produce being carried on head-load, pack-bullocks and pack-ponies.

It may be mentioned here that in the early days the most common and probably the only means of conveyance was bullock-carts. The bulk of goods traffic was carried on bullock-carts. It was a common practice among the planters to enter into agreement with cart owners to carry the produce of the village to the factory and from the factory to the river mouth or the bigger market. There were leaders among the cartmen who took leases for supply of carts to the planters and to the military. They were commonly known as the Chaudhuries. In this district ponies and horses have been commonly used from time immemorial. The excellent pasturage which the district could offer has always been an encouragement for the keeping of horses. The stud at Pusa in early nineteenth century and the patronage of horses by the planters and the zamindars were other reasons why the district had a preponderance of horses and ponies. Pack-donkies and pack-ponies from Nepal were also a common sight. Elephants have also been a means of conveyance limited to the very rich. Elephants have been particularly useful in the rainy season.

The earliest postal link between India and Nepal was carried through Champaran district and this was a factor which kept up a track which often dwindled to a bridle path. With the posting of a British Agent or Resident at Kathmandu it became necessary to keep up a postal link with Fort William. At first Sugauli and then Motihari controlled this postal link as the last post in India. The *dak* used to be carried by postal runners and *bahangees* who used to carry heavier parcels in baskets attached to a pole carried on shoulder. The ferries on the way had to be properly maintained. The road linking up Kathmandu with places like Raxaul, Bettiah, Sugauli, and Motihari, it may safely be presumed, was kept opened throughout the season. At first Sugauli and then Motihari as mentioned before used to distribute the *dak* received from Nepal to the various destinations like Fort William, Calcutta, Patna, Muzaffarpur, Gorakhpore, Allahabad, Benares, etc. The postal rate used to depend on the distance of the destination. A letter from Kathmandu to Allahabad would cost about Rs. 3-8-0. The patience and hardship of the postal department people in keeping up this link through that mountain terrains infested with wild animals and extremely unhealthy climate could only be imagined now.

The road system in 1936 mentioned earlier may be compared with the present picture when we have a network of roads as follows :—

	Miles.
Roads maintained by the District Board (1956-57)	1,180
Roads maintained by the Public Works Department	331
Roads maintained by the Forest Department ..	67
Roads maintained by the Municipalities and other Agencies (1956-57).	65
Roads maintained by the canal authorities ..	126
Roads maintained by the Local Boards (1956-57)	1,465

ROAD TRANSPORT.

National and State Highways.

National and State Highways are maintained by the Public Works Department of the State Government. Prior to 1946-47 there existed only 8 miles of road under the Public Works Department in the district. As mentioned before, there existed no Public Works Department in the district so far as roads were concerned. It is only in 1946-47 that a separate Public Works Division was created for the district of Champaran, but later on on account of refugee problem, another Public Works Division was created within the district with headquarters at Bettiah and now there exist two such divisions in the district. The old Public Works Division exercises its control over the jurisdiction of the whole Sadar Civil subdivision with its headquarters at Motihari and the new one over the jurisdiction of the Bettiah Civil subdivision.

Since 1946-47 a number of roads, previously belonging to the District Board, have been brought under the management of the Public Works Department. Since there are two Public Works Divisions in the district, two separate tables are given below to show the name of roads, mileage, etc. :—

Motihari Division.

Name of roads.	Mileage.	Classification.	Expenditure incurred for improvement up to 1956-57 and after nationalisation or provincialisation.	Expenditure to be incurred for improvement after 1956-57 under the Second Five-Year Plan.
	Miles.		Rs.	Rs.
1. Imampati Motihari-Turkaulia-Govindganj Road.	22	Major District Board	12,57,350	1,84,822
2. Motihari - Madhubanighat Road.	10	Ditto ..	..	..
3. Muzaffarpur border Champaran Sugauli Road.	40	National Highway nos. 28 and 28A.	23,84,893	Rs. 4.47 lakhs.
4. Sugauli-Raxaul Road ..	20	National Highway no. 28A.	..	..
5. Dhaka-Ghorsahan Road ..	11	State Highway ..	1,98,384	..
6. Peeprakothi - Dumrighat Road ..	18	National Highway no. 28.	..	Rs. 63 lakhs for Saran and Champaran both.
7. Motihari-Dhaka-Belwaghat Road.	24	State Highway ..	..	Rs. 33 lakhs.
8. Chakia-Madhurapur Sugar Factory Road.	7	Scheme no. 123 ..	..	Rs. 5.83 lakhs.
9. Motihari-Rulahi Road ..	4.5	Ditto ..	..	Rs. 4.20 lakhs
10. Bettiah-Govindganj Road	23	Ditto ..	..	..

Bettiah Division.

Name of roads.	Mileage.	Classification.	Expenditure incurred for improvement up to 1956-57 and after nationalisation or provincialisation.	Expenditure to be incurred for improvement after 1956-57 under the Second Five-Year Plan.
	Miles.		Rs.	Rs.
11. Sugauli-Bettiah Road	18	State Highway	12,31,908	5,000
12. Bettiah-Bagaha Road *via* Lauriya	40	Ditto	22,39,304	1,00,000
13. Lauriya-Ramnagar Road	13	Ditto	8,37,477	1,50,000
14. Lauriya-Shikarpur Thori Road	28	Ditto	8,20,233	35,56,000
15. Lauriya-Laheria Road	5	Ditto	3,27,046	2,73,000
16. Ramnagar-Someshwar Road	19	Ditto	1,16,174	19,00,000
17. Ramnagar-Meghawal Road	5	Ditto	4,23,640	3,74,000
18. Bettiah-Sewaghat Mainatanr Road.	24	Ditto	3,81,592	24,75,000
19. Bagaha-Sidhaw-Harnatanr Road.	13	Ditto	1,46,109	10,25,000
20. Bagaha-Tribeni (Bhaisalotan) Road	23	Ditto	..	29,00,000
21. Manjhowlia-Jagdispur Road	10	Not finalised up to the 2nd July 1958, but to be taken as State Highway.	..	10.63,000
22. Berharupia-Madhopur Road	3	Ditto	..	2,89,000
23. Dhumnang-Maldihu-Anjuwa Road.	8	Ditto	..	10,55,000
24. Tirkulia-Tamtiju-Gidha Road	5	Ditto	..	4,66,000
25. Bagaha-Semra Road	8	Ditto	..	9,29,000
26. Bettiah-Chainpatia-Narkatiaganj Road.	22	Not taken up but likely to be included under the Second Five-Year Plan.	..	28,00,000
27. Bettiah-Govindganj Road	24	..	..	30,00,000

A brief description of each of the abovementioned roads as they were till the end of 1956-57 is given below :—

(1) *Imampatti-Motihari-Turkaulia-Govindganj Road.*—This road was brought under the Public Works Department in 1946-47. This road connects Motihari, which is a rail head to Arreraj, a place of great religious importance in mile 18th of the road. This road also connects Saran and Champaran districts by crossing the river Gandak which is unbridged. Lauriya village, where there is an Asoka Pillar, is 1½ miles away from the main road. This road in its first mile crosses Dhanauti river which is bridged. The entire length of this road has been black-topped. Some of the culverts on the road have been constructed and extended. Four minor bridges on the road yet remain to be improved. One Inspection Bungalow is to be constructed on the road at Arreraj. The road is motorable throughout the year.

(2) *Motihari-Madhubanighat Road.*—This road was brought under the management of the Public Works Department in 1954. This road connects Sirsa Farm and Madhubanighat and important villages on the east of river Sikrahna. The river Sikrahna in mile 10 of the road is still unbridged and a bridge is to be constructed on this river. Nine miles of this road have been black-topped. Culverts on the road have been improved and constructed. The road is not motorable throughout its length on account of river Sikrahna.

(3) *Muzaffarpur Border-Champaran-Sugauli Road.*—This road was nationalised in 1946-47. This forms a part of the road connecting North and South Bihar with the construction of proposed Mokamah Bridge. This is also important from the strategic point of view as it forms a portion of the road leading to Kathmandu in Nepal. Important places connected by this road in the district are Jiudhara, Chakia, Peepra and Mehsi. The entire road has been black-topped excepting a length of 3 miles forming a bye-pass in Motihari town. This road crosses river Dhanauti at two places, that is, in the 5th and the 50th mile. At both these places wooden bridge has been provided. These bridges are to be reconstructed as major bridges on the road. Some of the culverts are also to be repaired and reconstructed. The road is motorable throughout its length on account of wooden bridges on river Dhanauti.

(4) *Sugauli-Raxaul Road.*—This road was nationalised in 1951. Important places touched on this road are Sugauli, Sugaulighat, Ramgarhwa and Raxaul. The road is of great strategic importance as it provides a direct route to Nepal. This road crosses rivers Tilway and Sikrahna on which there is a proposal to provide R. C. C. bridges. The road is not motorable throughout its length as there are several gaps where culverts are to be constructed. A length of 10 miles of this road has already been black-topped and several culverts have been reconstructed. The road is also to be black-topped for the remaining portion.

From Muzaffarpur to Raxaul the National Highway is under construction which is to have a minimum width of 150 feet and this will connect Raxaul directly with Calcutta. The Sugauli-Raxaul portion of the National Highway is already under expansion. The entire project is expected to be completed within 1960.

(5) *Dhaka-Ghorasahan Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1956. Important places on this road are Dhaka and Ghorasahan, the former being important for its location in the heart of an important grain producing area and the latter for being on the Nepal border. The road is bridged throughout its length and is motorable. Earthwork has been completed for a length of 10 miles on the road. The entire length of the road is to be black-topped.

(6) *Peepra-Dumraghat Road.*—This road has not yet been provincialised but is to be improved in the Second Five-Year Plan period. The road is to be improved for its entire length and a bridge on the road is to be provided at Dhanautighat on river Gandak. The road after improvement will provide a direct route to Gorakhpur in Uttar Pradesh and to Kushinagar which is a historical place of great importance. Important places touched by the road in the district are Kotwa and Dumrighat.

(7) *Motihari-Dhaka-Belwaghat Road.*—This road has also not been provincialised so far but is to be black-topped throughout its length. This road crosses river Sikrahna where a bridge is proposed to be constructed. Important places touched by the road in the district are Motihari, Chiraiya and Dhaka. This road connects Champaran and Muzaffarpur.

(8) *Chakia-Madhurapur Sugar Factory Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1957-58. The road is being improved under scheme no. 123. The road is in the sugar factory area. Important places touched by the road are Chakia and Madhurapur. The road is to be black-topped throughout its length during the Second Five-Year Plan period.

(9) *Motihari-Rulahi Road.*—This road was provincialised in the year 1957-58. Important places touched by the road are Motihari Sugar Factory area and Rulahi. It is entirely a sugar factory area road. The road is to be black-topped for a length of 4 miles during the Second Five-Year Plan period.

(10) *Bettiah-Govindganj Road.*—The road has been earmarked for improvement during the Second Five-Year Plan period.

(11) *Sugauli-Bettiah Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1948. Important places on this road are Sugauli, Lalsaraiya and Bettiah. The road has been black-topped throughout its length and remains motorable all round the year. The road crosses Korha Nala in the 24th mile where a wooden decked bridge on screw piles is existing which is weak and capable of taking load of only three tons. Prior to provincialisation the road was *katcha* and unmotorable.

The road is an alignment between the subdivisional headquarters at Bettiah and the district headquarters at Motihari. It passes by the sugar factories of Sugauli and Majhawlia as well as the production training centre for displaced persons at Lalsaraiya. At Sugauli it touches the National Highway from Muzaffarpur border to Raxaul at the Indo-Nepal border.

(12) *Bettiah-Bagaha Road* via *Lauriya*.—This road was provincialised in 1951. The road passes through Bettiah, Lauriya, Chawterwa and Bagaha. The entire length of the road has been black-topped and rendered motorable for the whole year. The Harha river cuts across the road in the 34th mile where a screw-pile bridge exists. All improvements on the road have been completed excepting a few culverts that are to be constructed. In the pre-provincialisation days the road was *kacha* and unmotorable.

(13) *Lauriya-Ramnagar Road*.—This road was provincialised in 1954. Important places touched by the road are Lauriya, Ramnagar and Bettiah. A portion of the road has been black-topped. It remains motorable throughout the year. The river Sikrahna crosses the road in the second mile where a screw-pile bridge exists. Before provincialisation the road was *katcha* and unmotorable. A portion of the road is yet to be black-topped. Bridges and culverts are also to be constructed. The road connects the Ramnagar police-station with the subdivisional headquarters at Bettiah.

(14) *Lauriya-Shikarpur-Thori Road*.—This road was provincialised in 1954. Important places on this road are Lauriya, Narkatiaganj, Shikarpur, Gaunaha and Bhikna Thori. The road connects Lauriya to the rail heads at Narkatiaganj and Bhikna Thori and is a feeding link road to Tharuhat area. The National Extension Service Block at Gaunaha and the Narkatiaganj Sugar Mills are also linked up by the road.

The road has been partly black-topped and improved in other ways. Two rivers, viz., Sikrahna and Pandai, cut across the road and a bridge at each of them is to be constructed at the estimated cost of Rs. 10,00,000 and Rs. 5,00,000, respectively. Several other minor bridges and culverts are also to be constructed on the road.

(15) *Lauriya-Loheria Road*.—This road was provincialised in 1955. It runs round the sugar factory area of Lauriya and Bagaha factories. The road is motorable. It has been partly improved. However, it is yet to be black-topped and improved in other ways.

(16) *Ramnagar-Meghawal Road*.—This road was provincialised in 1955. It runs by the cane growing area of the Harinagar Sugar Factory. The improvement of the road has been taken up to make it motorable. A screw-pile bridge over the river Ramrekha, which crosses the road, is being constructed at an estimated cost of Rs. 66,000.

(17) *Ramnagar-Sumeshwar Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1956. Important places on this road are Ramnagar, Goberdhana and Sumeshwar Hills. The famous Shiva temple of Sumeshwar is connected by this road with Ramnagar. For seven miles the road passes through forests and hills. There is a Forest Rest Shed at Goberdhana in the 14th mile of the road. The road is being improved. Rivers Belor and Singhya cut across the road in the 5th and 16th miles, respectively.

(18) *Bettiah-Sewaghat-Mainatanr Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1956. Important places on this road are Bettiah, Sewaghat, Sikta and Mainatanr. It goes up to Nepal border and is a link road between the subdivisional headquarters at Bettiah and Mainatanr police-station. Only earthwork on the road has been completed and the rest remains to be done. Two rivers, Sikrahna and Thori, cut across the road, a bridge at each of which it to be constructed at the estimated cost of Rs. 8,00,000 and Rs. 1,00,000, respectively.

(19) *Bagaha-Sidhaw-Harnatanr Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1956. Important places touched by the road are Bagaha, Sidhaw and Harnatanr. It runs up to Nepal border and also forms a feeding link to Tharuhat area. The improvement of this road has been taken up. Till 1956-57 earthwork on the road had been completed.

(20) *Bagaha-Tribeni Road.*—This road was provincialised in 1958. The important places on this road are Bagaha, Rampur, Tribeni and Bhainsalotan. The road is expected to assume great importance as it will be a feeding road for the Gandak barrage project which is likely to be taken up in near future. Two rivers, Bhapsa and Dhoba, cut across the road, at each of which a masonry bridge at the estimated cost of Rs. 2,25,000 and Rs. 2,00,000, respectively, is to be constructed in place of existing wooden ones. This road was formerly under the Forest Department.

The other roads (P. W. D. nos. 21 to 27 in the chart given before) had not been provincialised till 2nd July 1958. These roads excepting Bettiah-Chainpatia-Narkatiaganj Road and Bettiah-Govindganj Road run round the cane growing area of different sugar factories of the district. The P. W. D. has not till 1957 taken up the improvement of these roads. They are likely to be taken up during the Second Five-Year Plan.

District Board and Local Board Roads.

In the year 1956-57 the total mileage of roads maintained by the District Board was 1,180. Out of this about 50 miles were *pucca*, about 3 miles black-topped and the rest were unmetalled. A table is given below to show the important roads maintained by the District Board :—

Serial no.	Name of roads.	Mileage.									Expenditure.			
		Metalled. *			Unmetalled.			Total.			Incurred during the first Five-Year Plan.	Incurred during the Second Five-Year Plan Upto 1956-57.	Total during the Plan period.	Estimated cost of improvement during the Second Five-Year Plan period after 1956-57.
1	2	3			4			5			6	7	8	9
		M.	F.	Y.	M.	F.	Y.	M.	F.	Y.				Rs.
1	Bettiah-Tongrahighat Road	..	..	..	11	..	..	11	..	..				
2	Rajghat-Bettiah Road	1	1	145	6	4	59	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
3	Motihari-Sugauli Road	1	..	160	4	4	183	6	7	173	..	..	..	4,25,000
4	Rajpur-Bara Road	..	5	189	9	..	31	9	6	..	..	..	..	93,622
5	Bara-Puran Chapra Road	..	3	103	6	3	117	6	7	..	..	..	..	..
6	Motihari-Katkenwa Road	1	4	133	16	3	7	17	7	140	..	..	..	77,477
7	Phulwaria-Chauradano Road	..	..	..	19	2	..	19	2	..	..	..	..	..
8	Bettiah-Chanpatia Road	3	3	120	8	1	10	11	5	..	..	..	..	3,20,000
9	Chainptia-Shikarpur Road	2	7	77	8	2	19	11	1	96	..	..	..	..
10	Bettiah-Jagdishpur Road	1	7	80	7	4	140	9	4	..	..	..	..	..
11	Jagdishpur-Govindganj Road	1	6	..	12	7	47	14	5	47	..	..	..	..
12	Kallyanpur-Sattarghat Road	3	3	76	12	4	144	15	..	..	..	..	..	..
13	Bettiah-Peepraghat Road	2	3	186	6	..	46	8	3	..	..	..	..	..
14	Lakhaura-Narkatiaganj Road	..	..	..	7	6	86	7	6	86	..	..	..	..
15	Adapur-Narkatiaganj Road	..	..	..	8	5	83	8	5	83	..	..	..	..
16	Turkeulia-Sangrampur Road	1	4	..	11	..	33	12	4	33	..	..	..	..
17	Mirpur-Ghorasahan Road	..	..	..	11	3	178	11	3	178	..	..	..	..
18	Bettiah-Chautarwa Road	1	..	120	22	7	100	24	..	..	..	..	..	..

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*The total length of Black-topped road is only 3 miles 4 furlongs and 16 yards of which 2 miles 2 furlongs and 16 yards are in Rajghat-Bettiah Road and remaining in Motihari-Sugauli Road.

So far the two Local Boards of Sadar and Bettiah are concerned, there were, in 1956-57, 965 miles of *katcha* roads under the former and 500 miles under the latter, the total being 1,465 miles. Many of the Local Board roads are merely grass pathways. Since the introduction of the Gram Panchayats several Local Board roads in different villages have been repaired by the Gram Panchayats. Maintenance and improvement of roads in the villages is one of the constructive programmes of the Gram Panchayats.

An ordinance dated the 12th September, 1958, viz. (Bihar Ordinance no. VI of 1958) the Bihar District Boards and Local Boards (Control and Management) Ordinance, 1958, was promulgated by the Governor after having satisfied himself of the circumstances existing, which rendered it necessary for him to take immediate action to provide for taking over control and management of District Boards and Local Boards in the State of Bihar by the State Government. The District Magistrate of Champaran in pursuance of this ordinance took over the management of the Champaran District Board on the 15th September, 1958. The work is being carried on by a Magistrate under the control of the District Magistrate. A Special Officer has been appointed by the Government who will take over charge of the District Board. The Governor of Bihar in exercise of his power under clause (1) of Article 213 of the Constitution of India, directed that the members including the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman of any District Board or Local Board in the State of Bihar as constituted under the said Act shall, with effect from a date to be specified (15th September, 1958) in such order, vacate their respective offices and their offices shall be deemed to be vacant from that date. This proviso was made for a period not exceeding three years from the date effecting the abovementioned Ordinance.

Vehicles and Conveyances Now.

Transport by head-loads and by *bahangis* have not died out. A *bahangi* usually means loads carried on two sides of a pole by a man on his shoulders. The beasts of burden in the district are mainly bullocks and pack-horses, the former being far in excess of the latter. The same pair of bullocks is commonly used for ploughing as well as carting purposes. Only professional cart-keepers who let their cart on hire exclusively use their bullocks for carting. The breed of the bullocks is of very low quality and ordinarily a pair of bullocks can hardly be expected to pull a cart having a load of more than 15 to 20 maunds. Of course, there are a few big farmers who keep bullocks of better varieties. The carts have usually a pair of cross-shod wheels. Very few carts have got tyre wheels. A tyre-cart ordinarily takes load of 30 to 40 maunds. According to the livestock census of 1951, there were 3,93,816 working bullocks in the district. There were 37,579 bullock-carts in the district as enumerated at the livestock census of 1946.

Unfortunately there has not been any census of bullock-carts. Nor have we got a proper statistics of pack-horses or pack-donkeys.

In the urban areas horses are usually used to pull carriages with four vehicles. The two-wheeled carriages of traps (*tamtam*) are in use but *phaetons* have died out. Cycle rickshaws have replaced the slow moving and more expensive horse-drawn carriages which are almost at the verge of extinction. Riding has also lost much of its previous prestige. According to the livestock census of 1951, there were 6,444 horses and ponies in the district. Elephants are still to be seen in the villages but the interest in owning elephants as a mark of prestige is on the wane due to economic reasons. Elephants are very useful means of conveyance in the rainy season.

Among the vehicles mention could be made of ordinary bullock-carts, tyre-carts, *shampanees*, *tamtam*, *tangas*, cycle rickshaws, horse-carriages, cycles, motor cars, motor cycles, trucks, buses and jeeps. Palanquins and *dolis* may also be mentioned as a means of conveyance for passenger traffic. Their use is also much on the decline.

Every farmer of some means in villages keeps a bullock-cart and a pair of oxen. He keeps it mainly for his personal use, such as, to carry foodgrains from his house to the nearby market, to carry any member of the family from the village to the nearby railway station and *vice versa*, etc. He also at times lets out his cart. Apart from the farmers, a few non-farmers in almost every village maintain bullock-carts to be let on hire. In countryside it is generally difficult for any other vehicles to negotiate excepting a bullock-cart. The reasons for the popularity of bullock-carts may be said to be its low cost as well as the comparative inaccessibility for any other kind of vehicle to the interior of the countryside. Quite a considerable magnitude of inter-district traffic is also carried on bullock-carts. The district being on the border of Nepal and Uttar Pradesh bullock-carts are employed also for inter-State traffic. There were thousands of bullock-carts (including tyre carts) in the district in 1957-58, out of which only 192 were registered in the two municipal areas of Motihari and Bettiah. A tax on the bullock-carts by the District Board is also levied. The correct number of bullock-carts is not known.

Shampanee is just an improvement over the bullock-cart to make travelling more comfortable.

Cycle rickshaw, a two-wheeled light conveyance propelled by man-power is rather a recent introduction in the district. The handpulled rickshaws were first introduced just a few years earlier than the Second World War and the cycle rickshaws became prominent and subsequently pushed out handpulled rickshaws after the Second World War. As has been stated above, it has replaced horse-carts almost to the point of extinction. There were about 492 rickshaws in the district in 1957-58, out of which 339 were at Motihari and 153 at Bettiah municipal areas. The number is rapidly increasing.

Horse carriages is one of the oldest vehicles in the urban areas but is now going out of use. There were 58 horse-carriages registered within the limits of Motihari Municipality and 109 within Bettiah Municipality.

Cycle is a popular means of conveyance among the middle class people for short distance travels. It is more popular in urban areas. The number of cycles within the district is not known. There are 533 cycles at Motihari and 424 cycles at Bettiah (1957-58).

Motor cars and jeeps are very few in the district and are possessed by the men of higher income group. There were altogether 242 registered cars within the district in 1957-58. Besides, there were 104 registered trucks for goods transport in the same year. The number of tractors, trailors and motor-cycles were 59, 193 and 66, respectively.

A good part of the district is covered by bus transport. There are 50 buses registered in the district. Besides a large number of buses registered in other districts ply in Champaran district. The North Bihar Regional Transport Authority with headquarters in Muzaffarpur is the controlling authority for the buses and the Public Carrier Trucks. The Commissioner of Tirhut Division is the Chairman of this Authority. The number of Public and Private Carriers (Trucks) has been increasing and they definitely damage the roads. The trucks carry a good quantity of timber, grains and other commodities. The opening of Tribhuban-Path in Nepal connecting Kathmandu with Raxaul is likely to encourage bigger haulage by the carriers.

The following are the bus routes sanctioned in Champaran district :—

From Motihari to—
    (1) Gobindganj, (2) Areraj, (3) Malahi, (4) Sinni, (5) Sangrampur, (6) Raxaul, (7) Ghorasahan, (8) Dhaka, (9) Patahi, (10) Kessariya, (11) Madhuban, (12) Bagaha, (13) Lauriya, (14) Ramnagar, (15) Bettiah, (16) Muzaffarpur, (17) Sahebganj.

From Raxaul to Muzaffarpur.

From Bettiah to—
    (1) Bagaha, (2) Ramnagar, (3) Lauriya, (4) Jogapatti, (5) Areraj, (6) Pahleja Ghat.

From Peepra to Kessariya.

From Chakia to—
    (1) Kessariya, (2) Sangrampur.

From Sugauli to Areraj.
From Motihari to Hussaini.

Rail Roads.

The oldest railway in North Bihar was the Tirhut State Railway which came into being as a famine relief work on the 1st November 1875 with the opening of the section from Dalsingsarai to Darbhanga *via* Samastipur, a distance of 28 miles. Further extensions were progressively carried out and a line from Muzaffarpur was extended into Champaran in 1888. This was the only line in the district in the famine of 1897. At that time the railway line ended at Bettiah, nearly 50 miles from the foot of the hills and about 65 miles from the north-western extremity. By July, 1890, the Tirhut State Railway was transferred to the management of Bengal and North-Western Railway Company incorporated in England. The Bengal and North-Western Railway was transferred to State management and was renamed as Oudh-Tirhut Railway on the 1st of January, 1943. The name of the railway was subsequently changed to North-Eastern Railway on the 14th April, 1952.

The railway line was extended beyond Bettiah to Bhikna Thori on the Nepal border, thus traversing the district completely from south to north. The fifteen stations in the district on this line beginning from the south are Mehsi, Barah Chakia, Peeprah, Jiudhara, Motihari, Semra, Sugauli, Majhaulia, Bettiah, Chainpatia, Sathi, Narkatiaganj, Amolwa, Gaunaha and Bhikna Thori. There is also a short line running due north from Sugauli to Raxaul with one intermediate station at Ramgarhwa. This line affords a connection with the Nepal Light Railway at Raxaul which is on the frontier. There is a third line which runs from Bagaha to Bairgania, traversing the whole of the north of the district and connecting with the Muzaffarpur line at Narkatiaganj and the Sugauli line at Raxaul. The stations on this line going from east to west are Kundwa, Ghorasahan or Kotwa, Chauradano, Adapur, Raxaul, Bhelwa, Sikta, Gokhula, Narkatiaganj, Harinagar, Bhairoganj, Khairpokhar and Bagaha. This line earlier connected the north of the district with Gorakhpur. But this has been cut off by the collapse of the railway bridge at Bagaha in 1924. This line is most valuable for carrying the grain traffic of Nepal and North Champaran.

The total route and track mileage of railway in the district is 198¼.

Besides, there are two trolley lines in the district run by S. K. G. Sugar Company of Lauriya and Chakia Sugar Company, totalling a length of 20 miles. Each of these factories operate them in the sugarcane season to transport sugarcane from far away fields to the factory. Both the lines are privately owned and managed by the factory concerned.

A table is given below to show the monthly average of inward and outward traffic of goods and passengers both along with the average earnings for all the stations falling within the district :—

Passenger Traffic.

Name of stations.	Monthly average Traffic.		Monthly average earning.	
	Inward.	Outward.	Passenger.	Goods (parcel).
	Nos.	Nos.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Mehsi	10,165	11,645	13,250	450
2. Barah Chakia	9.770	27,958	77,853	1,850
3. Peepra	1,193	1,216	7,192	162
4. Jiudhara	3,000	6,325	8,320	195
5. Motihari	35,910	39,480	54,635	9,000
6. Semra	6,312	6,572	3,545	330
7. Sugauli	4,439	15,446	9,848	3,229
8. Majhaulia	6,050	5,065	10,000	350
9. Bettiah	45,755	48,587	39,108	23,414
10. Chainpatia	13,236	12,233	9,085	1,489
11. Sathi	175	8,445	8,523	8
12. Narkatiaganj	30,650	37,034	15,260	6,200
13. Amolwa	4,705	7,967	2,795	30
14. Gaunaha	3,085	3,574	2,428	141
15. Bhikna Thori	1,520	1,775	1,525	40
16. Ramgarhwa	Not available.			
17. Raxaul	35,992	36,363	56,790	34,500
18. Kundwa	152	252	200	160
19. Ghorasahan	8,555	10,065	6,615	1,325
20. Chauradano	3,035	3,161	3,367	292
21. Adapur	9,800	9,945	7,243	1,127
22. Bhelwa	4,525	2,079	3,000	480
23. Sikta	240	13,630	5,500	1,520
24. Gokhula	50	8,000	325	..
25. Harinagar	11,003	14,673	9,625	4,550
26. Bhairoganj	5,301	6,081	2,888	260
27. Khairpokhar	1,240	1,830	2,100	65
28. Bagaha	,215	3,797	8,647	2,308

Goods Traffic.

Name of stations.	Monthly average traffic.		Monthly average earning.	
	Inward.	Outward.	Inward.	Outward.
	Mds.	Mds.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Mehsi	150	350	250	550
2. Barah Chakia	18,005	45,000	30,000	90,000
3. Peepra	8,721	6,248	1,420	4,649
4. Jiudhara	50	100	50	100
5. Motihari	97,250	25,400	24,500	44,500
6. Semra	30,000	30,000	5,000	3,000
7. Sugauli	3,040	9.173	16,008	11,773
8. Majhaulia	24,000	81,537	18,878	1,18,591
9. Chainpatia	11,800	45,000	1,500	39,000
10. Bettiah	88,405	30,960	77,974	25,210
11. Sathi	33	1,002	12	273
12. Narkatiaganj	52,000	41,840	28,600	35,080
13. Amolwa	25	4,000	20	4,000
14. Gaunaha	2,290	26,295	450	5,978
15. Bhikna Thori	7,500	85,000	7,500	18,000
16. Ramgarhwa	..	..	..	..
17. Raxaul	66,446	38,239	63,874	12,996
18. Kundwa	2,300	5,000	445	1,000
19. Ghorasahan	1,000	60,060	6,310	21,000
20. Chauradano	1,700	2,044	1,425	480
21. Adapur	9,785	32,165	4,500	21,029
22. Bhelwa	1,200	2,000	3,000	4,000
23. Sikta	16,000	25,000	8,000	10,000
24. Gokhula	..	..	..	..
25. Harinagar	4,36,072	81,375	1,83.286	1,51,133
26. Bhairoganj	500	500	350	500
27. Khairpokhar	20	40	10	30
28. Bagaha	1,54,680	6,600	1,42,000	..

Another table is given below showing the main stations of the district as well as the chief goods exported therefrom to different parts of the country :—

Stations.	Goods traffic handled for export.	Areas where exported.
Mehsi ..	Kharisalt and saltpetre ..	Kharisalt to Dacca, Chittagong and stations in Purnea district and Calcutta area. Saltpetre to coal and iron mine areas.
Chakia ..	Jute, oil seeds and sugar ..	Jute and oil seeds to Calcutta area. Sugar to various destinations in India.
Motihari ..	Jute, timber and sugar ..	Jute and timber to Calcutta area. Sugar to various destinations in India.
Sugauli ..	Timber, molasses and sugar ..	Timber to Calcutta area. Molasses to Assam and sugar to various destinations in India.
Majhowlia ..	Molasses and sugar ..	Molasses to Assam and Sugar to various destinations in India.
Bettiah ..	Timber, molasses and sugar ..	Timber to Calcutta area, Molasses to Assam and sugar to various destinations in India.
Chainpatia..	Ditto ..	Ditto.
Narkatiaganj	Foodgrains, molasses and sugar	Foodgrains within Bihar, molasses to Assam and sugar to various destinations in India.
Raxaul ..	Foodgrains, pulses, timber and railway sleepers.	Foodgrains and pulse within Bihar, timber and railway sleepers to North-Western and Central Railway stations.
Harinagar ..	Foodgrain, molasses and sugar	Foodgrains within Bihar, molasses to Assam and sugar to various destinations in India.
Bagaha ..	Timber, foodgrains, molasses and sugar.	Timber to Calcutta area, foodgrains within Bihar, molasses to Assam and sugar to various destinations in India.
Bhikna Thori	Ballast, stonechips, timber and railway sleepers.	Ballast and stonechips within Bihar, timber and railway sleepers to stations in North-Western, Central and Eastern Railways.

RAIL ROAD COMPETITION.

In this district there are 1,235 miles of road (excepting village tracks) as against 198¼ railway miles. But the railway lines do not have a ramification all over the district.

There passes a main road route parallel to every railway line in the district of Champaran, excepting for a few miles from Kharpokhar railway station to Bagaha railway station on the line running from Kunda Chainpur to Bagaha and from Gaunaha railway station to Bhikna Thori in the line running from Mehsi to Bhikna Thori. But even the roads running parallel to the railways do not offer any competition to the latter, for several obvious reasons. Firstly, there is so much pressure on railways that they cannot cope satisfactorily with the traffic and over-crowding has become a rather regular feature. Secondly, the trans-district places from where goods are imported and the places where local products are exported are at such distances from the district that excepting railways no other means of transport could be economical. Most of the local products are exported to far distant places outside the State, such as Calcutta, Gauhati, Madras, Bangalore, etc. Similar is the case with the goods which are imported. They are mostly imported from Ahmedabad, Wadi Bunder, Indore, railway stations in Uttar Pradesh, etc. In view of these facts it may be said that there is hardly any competition between rail and road transport to the detriment of the former. As a matter of fact both the railways and the roadways could carry much more of passenger and goods traffic without the least competition.

WATERWAYS, FERRIES AND BRIDGES.

The only river which is utilised for navigation is Gandak, flowing from Nepal and along the whole southern boundary of the district. This river ultimately joins the Ganga in the district of Patna. At first the river flows southwards and then takes a south-easterly turn. The river bed becomes very wide during rainy season and at times presents a dreadful scene. In summer, however, its bed becomes a dry stretch of sand with much narrower channels of flow of a few feet of water. Country boats with merchandise weighing 200 to 500 maunds ply in the river throughout the year, but their movements often depend on the wind. A regular service along the river route does not appear to be a profitable endeavour.

The Sikrahna is also known as Burhi Gandak in its down stream. But the river is so shallow that no transport by country boat is feasible for long distance. However, as this river cuts the district almost in two parts, several ferry crossings are provided on important roads. The flow of the river is from north-west to south-east.

The railways have two bridges over the river Sikrahna, one near Chainpatia and the other near Sugauli. The Champaran District Board has also a 616 feet long steel bridge spanning this river at Chainpatia on the road from Bettiah to Narkatiaganj.

Since there are very few road bridges in the district there are a number of ferries and they carry heavy traffic. The important ferries controlled by the District Magistrate of Champaran since 1954-55 on river Gandak are Bagaha, Ratwal, Gobindganj and

Hussainsatar, on river Burhi Gandak are Matiaria, Sathi, Sugauli, Barnawa, Lalbegia and Itwa, on river Motia is Chaita and on a rivulet of Burhi Gandak near Mehsi is Mehsi Nala. All these ferries were previously under the District Board. Even now the amount realised for these ferries are credited to District Board's account. Besides, three ferries are exclusively maintained by the Government on river Burhi Gandak. They are Sewaghat, Madhubanighat and Baraghat. These were previously under Zamindars and have now vested in the State.

All the ferries on river Gandak controlled by the District Magistrate are Class One Ferries and at each ferry four big boats are maintained. All the ferries on Burhi Gandak are Class Two Ferries and two big boats are maintained at each of them. The ferries on other rivers are Class Three Ferries and only one big boat is maintained at each of them.

The Government do maintain a few boats of their own. Most of the ferries, however, are managed through contractors. There is a prescribed rate of ferry charges for different kinds of traffic.

AIR COMMUNICATION.

There are aerodromes at Motihari and Bettiah. The aerodromes can only be used by smaller planes. None of these places is on any scheduled air service route. There are two aerodromes within Nepal, namely, Semra and Birganj, but close to Champaran district. There is an Air service from Semra to Kathmandu, capital of Nepal operated by Royal Nepal Airways. When these air-routes are developed and Raxaul aerodrome is complete, we may have one day a regular Raxaul-Kathmandu air link with stops at Semra.

The civil aerodrome at Raxaul under construction at about one and a half miles distance from the town is expected to be commissioned within the year 1959-60. The terminus building is to be constructed. It has a runway of more than 4,500 feet long which gives it the next place to all other civil aerodromes in eastern India, excepting the Dum-Dum aerodrome near Calcutta. It is destined to play a vital role in bringing close our northern neighbourers and it is also expected that the Delhi-Moscow service will be much shortened when the service will be diverted *via* Raxaul. India-China, India-Tibet and India-Nepal services will be far shorter and quicker and thus naturally more voluminous through Raxaul. When put on the international air-routes, its link with Calcutta is definite to give the township of Raxaul a rosy picture ahead, so far its trades and commerces are concerned. For the present the civil aerodrome has the capacity to land Dakotas.

TRAVEL FACILITIES.

Champaran district has a variety of interests. At one time the district abounded in big game avifauna. Even rhinos and wild elephants have been shot within the district. Due to the proximity of the forests of Nepal even now could be seen bisons, wild cows, deer and tigers in the jungles of Bettiah. Some of the rivers and marshes were particularly noted for good fish, birds, crocodiles and otter. Once Mahseer used to be plentiful in some of the rivers. Even now there is considerable area of thick forest in Bettiah subdivision and on the border of Nepal that might be preserved as a game sanctuary with observation posts. This portion is one of the areas where wild life could still be seen at very close range. Champaran hides are in great demand in foreign markets. The forests have valuable timber which is an attraction for the trade. There are beauty spots like Sumeswar Hills, Bhikna Thori and Bhaisalotan. At one time Bhaisalotan had almost an annual visit from the British Governors of the province for a shoot. There are temples, ancient and modern, and places of archæological interest which are well worth a visit. From trade point of view the district has its further possibilities of developments.

With the present expansion and improvement of roads there is no reason why a certain amount of tourism cannot be developed under proper State patronage. There are Dak Bungalows and Rest Houses in the interior. Although the Public Works Department came into existence, so far its roads are concerned, only in 1946-47 there were Dak Bungalows and Rest Houses maintained by it from before in most of the areas because of the attractions of the particular spots. In this respect Champaran district scores over the neighbouring Muzaffarpur and Saran districts because there is not much scope of development of tourism in them.

Although this district is well connected with railways, travelling by train is not very comfortable owing to overcrowding, slow movement and an almost chronic unpunctuality in the running of the trains. Better railway facilities are necessary to help tourism. Some roads also could be developed to give better communication to the top of Sumeshwer Hills, interior of Tharuhat, a tribal area and some of the shooting areas.

Nepal by road and air from several points is very close to the district and is also another factor that might be utilised for the development of tourism in this district. Some time back there was an enterprising scheme of organising parties of foreign visitors for seeing wild life and shoot in the jungles of Champaran. Like many schemes which are ahead of the time it did not mature. There is no reason why it cannot be a reality in the future with proper developments. There are no organised bureaus or travel agency to do publicity and arrangement for travels to beauty spots in the district.

There are also no hotels with modern facilities anywhere. The Dak Bungalows and the Inspection Bungalows are usually kept exclusively for the Government officials or the District Board officers. These bungalows should be improved and liberally thrown open to the public on payment of fees. There should be proper arrangement for board as well. There are certain departmental Rest Houses for the officers of those departments. Within this category are the Forest and the Canal bungalows usually situated in attractive surroundings. These bungalows should also be thrown open to the public on payment of fees when not required for official use. This is a district where there could be a number of youth hostels and cheap dormitories at the beauty spots to encourage study of fauna, flora and avifauna.

The following is the list of Rest Bungalows of various categories in the district :—

(*a*) *Maintained by the District Board.*

There are altogether two Dak and sixteen Inspection Bungalows maintained by the District Board, a list of which is given at the end of the chapter "Local Self-Government".

(*b*) *Maintained by the Forest Department.*

(*i*) *Udaipur Forest Rest House.*—It is situated at about 35 miles away from Motihari and has a beautiful site as it is situated by the side of "Saraiyaman". It is a good picnic spot near Bettiah.

(*ii*) *Gonouli Forest Rest House.*—It is situated at a distance of 87 miles from Motihari. From this rest house the view of snow-clad Himalayan peaks in the morning looks very charming. It is a beauty spot.

(*iii*) *Kotraha Forest Rest House.*—It is situated at a distance of about 80 miles from Motihari near the bank of Tribeni canal and 3 miles away from Bhaisalotan, both the places being important beauty spots in the district.

(*iv*) *Naurangia Forest Rest House.*—It is at a distance of about 81 miles from Motihari.

(*c*) *Maintained by the Public Works Department (Roads and Buildings).*

Only one Inspection Bungalow is maintained by the Department at Bettiah proper.

(*d*) *Maintained by the Public Works Department (Irrigation).*

(1) *Dhaka Inspection Bungalow.*—16 miles from Motihari Railway Station to north in Dhaka market.

(2) *Goabari Rest Shed.*—2 miles west of Barginia Railway Station on the right bank of Lalbakeya river.

(3) *Chauradano Rest Shed.*—$\frac{1}{4}$ mile south of Chauradano Railway Station on the right bank of Teur canal.

(4) *Patjirwa Rest Shed.*—In the 27th mile of Champaran embankment on the left bank of river Gandak.

(5) *Bheriheri Rest Shed.*—In the 40th mile of Champaran embankment on the left bank of river Gandak.

(6) *Chattia Rest Shed.*—In the 54th mile of Champaran embankment on the left bank of river Gandak.

(7) *Sangrampur Rest Shed.*—In the 67th mile of Champaran embankment on the left bank of river Gandak.

(8) *Dhekaha Rest Shed.*—In the 8th mile of Champaran embankment on the left bank of river Gandak.

(9) *Maghauli Inspection Bungalow.*—½ mile from Amolwa Railway Station in the 27th mile of the right bank of Tribeni canal.

(10) *Maniari Inspection Bungalow (as well as a Rest Shed).*—9 miles from Narkatiaganj Railway Station in the 53rd mile of Tribeni canal on its right bank.

(11) *Semra Rest Shed.*—In Semra village, 3 miles off from Narkatiaganj Railway Station.

(12) *Gokula Rest Shed.*—In village Mathura, 1 mile east of Gokula Railway Station.

(13) *Ausanpur Rest Shed.*—In village Ausanpur, 4 miles from Manjadwa Railway Station.

(14) *Shikarpur Inspection Bungalow.*—In village Malda, 4 miles east of Narkatiaganj Railway Station.

(15) *Ramnagar Inspection Bungalow*—Situated at the subdivisional headquarters of the Irrigation Department at Ramnagar in the 37th mile of Tribeni canal at a distance of 28 miles from Bettiah Civil Subdivisional headquarters.

(16) *Barawa Inspection Bungalow*—Situated in the 27th mile of the Tribeni canal and is approachable only by canal service road all the year round except when river Masan goes in flood.

(17) *Sidhao Inspection Bungalow*—Situated in the 16th mile of Tribeni canal, 10 miles off from Bagaha Railway Station and is approachable by canal service road as well as a P. W. D. road.

(18) *Kerai Rest Shed*—Situated in the 11th mile of the Tribeni canal and is approachable by canal service road above.

(19) *Tribeni Inspection Bungalow*—Situated at the Head Regulator of the Tribeni canal and is approachable by canal service road. It is now being connected with Bagaha by a metalled road.

(20) *Bagaha Inspection Bungalow*—Situated at a distance of 1¾ miles from Bagaha Railway Station and 44 miles from Bettiah Civil Subdivisional headquarters.

POSTAL COMMUNICATIONS.

Regarding postal and telegraphic communications Mr. O'Malley in the *District Gazetteer of Champaran,* published in 1907, remarked

" .... the district is still backward owing to the fact that its people are mainly ignorant cultivators, and that its resources have not yet been developed ". Since then the development in the field of postal communications has been rather phenomenal, especially during the recent years.

The total number of post offices in 1906-07 was 52 as against 51 in 1930-31, which also included one head office. This number rose to 380 in 1957.

In 1907 there were altogether 424 miles of postal communications as against 482¾ miles in 1930-31 and 1,329 miles in 1958. The number of postal articles delivered in the whole year 1906-07 was 17,532 as compared to the average weekly number of postal articles delivered of 2,07,400 in 1957. The value of money orders paid was Rs. 5,51,184 in 1906-07 as against Rs. 18,11,101-5-0 in 1930-31 and Rs. 1,02,48,581-4-5 in 1955—57 and those issued was Rs. 11,42,682 Rs. 21,97,044-12-9 and Rs. 1,00,40,690-2-7, respectively. The number of Savings Bank deposits was Rs. 3,359 in 1906-07 as against Rs. 30,785 in 1956-57 (no such figures are available for 1930-31). The value of the Savings Bank deposits in 1930-31 was Rs. 5,19,028 as compared to Rs. 62,63,961-12-3 in 1956-57, whereas the value of withdrawal was Rs. 5,02,959-9-3 and Rs. 52,94,509, respectively (no such figures are available for 1906-07).

In 1956-57 the total number of National Savings Certificates issued was 3,561 value at Rs. 5,12,091, while those of discharged was 496 valued at Rs. 81,757-12-0. In the same year the total number of radio licenses in the district was 1,050 as against 146 in 1951-52, the reasons for the increase being the growing popularity of radio receiving sets.

In 1906-07 there were altogether 10 telegraph offices situated at Motihari, Barachakia, Bettiah, Kesariya, Pipra Factory, Ramnagar, Raxaul, Siraha, Sugauli and Turkaulia. By 1930-31 this number went to 18, the new places being one additional telegraph office at Motihari and altogether new offices at Bagaha, Chainpatia, Dhaka, Gobindganj, Lauriya, Mehsi, Narkatiaganj, Rajpore and Ramgarhwa (the names of Siraha and Pipra Factory telegraph offices are disappearing from the list of 1930-31). The number of telegraph offices rose to 24 in 1957, the new places being Arreraj, Gulwara, Madhuban, Motihari Court, Majhaulia Railway Station, Ghorasahan and Damodarpur.

Some new post offices are proposed to be opened which will increase postal mileage by 25.

There is one Telephone Exchange at Motihari and two branches at Bettiah and Raxaul. Besides there are six long distance public call offices at Barachakia, Chanpatia, Narkatiaganj, Bhelahi, Sikta and Adapur. Motihari Exchange has got 70 subscribers, Bettiah 65 and Raxaul 28. These Exchanges are controlled by the Subdivisional Officer, Telegraph, Muzaffarpur.

CHAPTER VIII.

ECONOMIC TRENDS.

INTRODUCTORY.

Price level, wage structure, and employment position at any time explain the material condition of any place and these features when comparatively analysed for different times indicate the economic trends. A review of the last quarter of the nineteenth century, about the material condition of the people, set against the present may give an idea of the economic trends prevalent in the district.

Mr. Skrine, while investigating the material condition of the lower orders in Bengal in 1891-92, recorded the following general opinion on this point. He assigned the highest place in the scale of prosperity in the Patna Division to Champaran and observed :—

" Champaran to the north is the best of all. The soil is more fertile than that of the neighbouring tracts, there is still a reserve of land available for cultivation and the population is as yet only 520 to a square mile ". He was mainly impressed by the density of the population, for he prefaces his remarks with the following statement :—

" The material condition of the lower classes of the Patna Division varies inversely with the pressure of the population on the soil."

Mr. Skrine was not exceptional in his opinion of the degree of prosperity that Champaran enjoyed. Mr. Henry, the then Collector, in his general administration report of 1883-84 and Mr. Worsley in his annual report for 1886-87, corroborated Mr. Skrine's conclusion. But in the opinion of Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Settlement Officer (1892—1899), " the optimistic views of the high degree of prosperity of Champaran ", as referred to above, " receive a most emphatic contradiction from the fact that, given a failure of rice crop, Champaran is the first district to succumb to distress ". He further observes that " In view of its acute susceptibility to famine, general statements of its internal prosperity are either valueless or misleading. Where a district with land plentiful and population sparse has one-third of its people compelled to eke out a living by labour, that district can lay no claim to general prosperity. Where that district has in addition 2½ per cent of its *raiyati* land transferred by sale and 1 per cent mortgaged, or a total of 3½ per cent thus alienated in the 10 years, with 40 per cent of the transferees belonging to the class of professional money-lenders, its claim to this condition becomes still further diminished ".

Mr. Stevenson-Moore also quotes Mr. D. J. Macpherson, mentioning that " this condition of things is not alleviated by the existence of any arts or industries affording a diversity of occupation and bringing wealth into the district. The only non-agricultural manufacture for export is saltpetre and it affords support only to about 6,400 persons, who have to supplement their earning by working as labourers. There are only three towns with a population of over 5,000 and between them they represent only 2.3 per cent of the population of the district............. The prosperity of the whole population may therefore be said to be entirely dependent on the condition of the crops, and consequently in the long run on so uncertain an element as weather".

The following observations may be made on the position indicated by the quotations above :—

(*i*) The district was alarmingly susceptible to famine;
(*ii*) one-third of the population were labourers;
(*iii*) there was no major bye-industry;
(*iv*) 2.3 per cent of the population were urban;
(*v*) crops were the gamble of weather; and
(*vi*) major portion of the land was concentrated in hands of a few.

However, the daily life that is prevalent at the present time either in towns or villages, in the district, has somewhat perceptibly changed for the better. Some of the factors that have brought about the changes are the planned and careful handling of the agricultural and industrial problems by the people as well as the Government, the spread of education, libraries and the press, improvement of communication, etc. Another social factor is a slow integration of some of the communities, particularly in the villages. There has been a change in the social values of castes and communities. Occupations do no longer follow the castes. The previous commonly accepted gradation of the caste-structure socially has also changed. Decentralisation of administration and the policy to uplift the rural life have partially shifted the importance of the urban areas to the rural sector. The villages have now definitely been put on the administrative map.

A discussion of features like comparative statements of prices, wages, employment position, total population and total production as well as the average production figures per acre of important cereals, indebtedness, average holdings per family, subsistence holding, holdings above and below subsistence level, livelihood pattern, shift towards industry from agriculture and *vice versa,* etc., will give the picture of the economic system as at present.

PRICES.

In his Statistical Account of Champaran (1877) W. W. Hunter discusses the prices of this district. He mentions that "the average cost of the best rice in 1872-73 was 12 seers per rupee, common rice 22 seers per rupee; wheat 17 seers per rupee; barley 31 seers per rupee; gram 24 seers per rupee; maize 31¼ seers per rupee. The highest price reached in the famine of 1866 was 6¾ seers per rupee. About the time of Permanent Settlement, common rice sold at 75 seers per rupee; wheat 85½ seers per rupee; *janera* 135 seers per rupee. Distilled liquor sells at from 8 to 12 annas per quart bottle; indigo at about Rs. 220 per factory maund ".

In comparison to the above set of prices, the figures for the years 1956 to 1958 are given and their averages calculated and compared. Conclusions based on them may leave out certain basic realities, at least they shall ignore the imprint of ephimeral irruptions in the economic set up, e.g., of occasional depressions or inflations, etc. However, they will indicate some of the obvious economic trends. The current position will be all the more clear, when price relatives showing levels of retail prices in relation to their corresponding levels in 1948, with figures from 1950—1957, are analysed. This has been done in another section.

Statement showing the prices of essential foodgrains per maund for the years 1956—1958.

	Rice.		Wheat.		Barley.	Maize.
	Medium.	Coarse.	White.	Red.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
		1956 June.				
Motihari ..	19.50	18.50	17.50	15.10	10.00	13.50
Bettiah ..	20.50	19.50	17.50	14.50	9.25	..
		1956 May.				
Motihari ..	19.00	18.00	16.00	14.00	..	10.00
Bettiah ..	20.00	19.00	17.00	14.00	9.00	9.50
		1956 February.				
Motihari ..	17.50	16.50	17.00	16.00	9.50	12.50
Bettiah ..	16.50	15.00	17.00	15.00	9.00	12.00
		1956 November.				
Motihari ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bettiah ..	20.50	19.00	16.00	15.00	9.50	14.00
		1957 June.				
Motihari ..	23.25	22.25	19.00	16.00	12.50	N.A.
Bettiah ..	24.50	23.75	20.00	18.50	13.00	N.A.
	1958 October (November prices near about the same).					
Motihari ..	27.00	25.00	N.A.	N.A.	19.00	15.00
Bettiah ..	22.00	21.00	22.00	N.A.	20.00	16.50
		1958 December.				
Motihari ..	24.00	22.00	N.A.	N.A.	19.50	15.00
Bettiah ..	17.00	17.00	N.A.	N.A.	17.00	15.00

The table above shows that since Hunter wrote the price of rice has increased approximately by 12 times, of wheat and barley by 8 times and maize by 13 times. In this period the population has multiplied, the production has increased and the wages have gone up. These factors studied with the increased set of prices will indicate the economy of the district. In this connection it may be mentioned that since near about 1947 the prices seem to have been tied up to the same level. The end of the Second Great War in May, 1945, brought about a certain stability but the circumstances worked against the renewal of the previous price-level. The year 1943 had brought in a sudden rise in the prices, e.g., the medium quality of rice which sold at Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per maund shot up to be sold at Rs. 23 in the month of July, 1943. Then there was a downward tendency and gradually by the year 1946 the price was moving from Rs. 13 to Rs. 18 per maund. By the end of 1947 the price began to rise and is since somewhat near about Rs. 25. So that one remarkable feature comes to light in the trend of prices specially of rice, that it was below Rs. 10 before the year 1943. sought an equilibrium below Rs. 20 up to the year 1947 and had not moved much below Rs. 20. This feature will have to be kept in view when the real wages and earnings of the people are calculated. If there has been a sufficient income to acquire the amenities at the prevailing prices, and if these amenities are comparatively more than those of the period compared, the trend of the economic system is towards progress and prosperity, and *vice versa.*

WAGES.

About wages, Hunter mentions in his *Statistical Account of Champaran* (1877) that "the Collector returned the following rates of wages, etc., as prevailing in the year 1870 :—

> Imported day labourer, Rs. 3 per month; day labourers, 2 annas per day; agricultural labourers, 1 anna 2 pies per day; hire of a plough per day, 2½ annas; contract rate for earthwork, Rs. 2-8-0 per 1,000 cubic feet; where the earth has to be thrown some distance, Rs. 3 per 1,000 cubic feet; blacksmith, 2 annas per day; carpenters, the same; weavers, 5 pies per yard of cloth woven; brick-makers, Rs. 250 to Rs. 300 per 1,00,000 bricks; masons, 2½ to 3 annas per day; thatchers, 2 to 2½ annas per day; washermen 3, 4 and 5 annas per score of clothes; barbers, from 4 to 8 annas per month; tailors, 3 annas per day; jewellers, 2 annas per tola manufactured for silver work and 8 annas for gold; sawyers, 2½ annas per day; rope-makers, 2 annas per day; herdsmen, 2 to 4 annas per head of cattle; tinmen, 1 anna for each article; oilmen, 3 annas per day; grain parchers, 1 pie for each 4 seers; peons and grass cutters, Rs. 3 per month; boatmen, 3 annas per day, carters, Rs. 4 per month; burnishers, 2½ annas per day, chamars, 2½ annas per day.

"Wages are said to have risen slightly of late years. The average rate at present for unskilled labour is 1¼ to 1¾ annas per day of ten hours; male adults getting 1½ annas, boys and women 1 anna. In addition a meal of parched barley or rice is commonly given in the middle of the day, which brings the wages up to from 1¼ to 1¾ annas. A plough is usually hired for two annas per day which includes the hire of two bullocks and one man. The cattle only work from morning to noon and the driver receives some maize for his breakfast. In the month of *Kartik,* when the demand is great, the daily rate paid for a plough rises to 2½ annas. During the rice harvest, the reapers are paid in kind, receiving two out of every sixteen bundles reaped, with an occasional bundle thrown in. The mode of remuneration is so much more advantageous to the labourers, that it is difficult to induce them to accept any money wages during harvest time".

Although Hunter has not mentioned payment of ordinary wages in kind, yet this system of payment was prevalent in his time. A portion of the agricultural wages is still paid in kind. The period of payment varies—it may be hourly, daily, weekly, monthly or even yearly. Wages also differ from one region to another due to various reasons, such as local custom (a main ruling factor), cost of living, supply and demand, the nature of work, the caste of the worker and so on. Briefly it may be said that the present wages in the Bettiah subdivision are about 20 per cent higher than in the Motihari Sadar subdivision. Workers are paid in kind at present (1958) according to the following rates :—

BETTIAH SUBDIVISION.

In standard maund, seer and chhatak.

Males—3 seers and 8 chhataks for one working day.

Females—3 seers for one working day.

Children—2 seers for one working day.

Besides wages, *halwahas* (ploughmen) are given 6 chhataks of *sattu* as *pani-piyai* (breakfast).

MOTIHARI SUBDIVISION.

Males—2 seers and 12 chhataks per day.

Females—2 seers and 4 chhataks per day.

Children—1 seer and 8 chhataks per day.

Ploughmen are given *sattu* (powdered gram) also as in Bettiah. Wages in kind specially for agricultural operations have almost remained the same since so many decades back, at least since the last quarter of the nineteenth century. It may be said that wages in kind are rigid and hardly change with the passing of time.

WAGES IN CASH.

The average rates in 1958 for men, women and children in different agricultural operations in the district are as follows :--

In urban areas the wage rates run thus :—

(*i*) Unskilled labour—

Male—Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 1-8-0 per day.
Female—Re. 0-14-0 to Re. 1 per day.
Children—Re. 0-12-0 to Re. 0-14-0 per day.

(*ii*) Skilled labour—

Male—Rs. 2 to Rs. 3-8-0 per day.
Female— .. ..
Children—Rs. 1-4-0 to Rs. 2 per day.

Wage rate in cash show an upward tendency during the last 30 years, which is apparent through comparison of the tables below with that of above.

Depression Period (1929—1934).

(*i*) Unskilled labour—

Male—2 annas 6 pies daily.
Female—2 annas daily.
Children—1 anna daily.

(*ii*) Skilled labour—

Male—4 annas daily.
Female— .. ..
Children—2 annas to 3 annas daily.

Pre-War Period (1935 to 1939).

(*i*) Unskilled labour—

Male—4 annas per day.
Female—2 annas 6 pies per day.
Children—2 annas per day.

(*ii*) Skilled labour—

Male—8 annas to 10 annas per day.
Female— .. ..
Children—4 annas to 6 annas per day.

In the year 1943.

(*i*) Unskilled labour—

Male—10 annas per day.
Female—7 annas per day.
Children—5 annas per day.

(*ii*) Skilled labour—

Male—14 annas to Rs. 1-4-0 per day.
Female— .. ..
Children—8 annas to 12 annas per day.

Though wage rates have risen, the rise has not been commensurate with the increase in the cost of living. The value of the important articles of foodgrains consumed by the labourers has increased considerably more than the value of the labour, which will be taken up further in the section on the standard of living.

EMPLOYMENT POSITION.

Although the economy of the district of Champaran is almost entirely agricultural, it is necessary to find out how the population has been apportioned to occupation. Thereby the percentage of the agriculturists in the broad sense of the term, whether owning cultivators, non-owning cultivators, pure labourers or otherwise will be appreciated with reference to the groups other than these. In the Census Report of 1891 which is also quoted in the Survey and Settlement Report, 1892—1899, the population is apportioned according to occupation as follows :—

(*a*) Agriculture	13,23,125
(*b*) Professions	4,077
(*c*) Commercial	25,988
(*d*) Artisans	1,29,222
(*e*) Pastoral	2,634
(*f*) Hunting and Fishing	8,971
(*g*) Service	2,51,467
(*h*) Unproductive Groups	17,165
	17,62,649

The Survey and Settlement Report (1892—1899), observes on the above table as follows :—

" Agriculture thus accounts for 72 per cent of the population. The details do not bear investigation, as only 2,628 of these dependent on agriculture are shown as labourers, which must be incorrect; and for the reason already stated, 72 per cent is sure to be as under-estimate. There are no indigenous industries of any importance, and no large towns in the district. I should, therefore, take the proportion of population, dependant on agriculture at nothing less than 85 per cent. And the Report classifies the total population as mentioned below :—

	Per cent.
Pure cultivators	57
Pure cultivators with other professions ..	7
Cultivating labourers	21
Landless labourers	9
Miscellaneous	6 "

The Report of Survey and Settlement Operations during 1913—1919 mentions at page 3 that the census of 1911 disclosed

19,08,385 persons as the total population of the district in which 17,28,902 persons or 90 per cent were shown as engaged in agriculture.

A census table of 1951 dealing with the occupational structure of the district population quoted from the *District Census Hand-Book for Champaran* (1956) has been given in the Chapter on "Other Social Services". The figures in that table show the following trend :—

(*a*) That agriculture not only predominates in the economic set-up of the district, but employs more now. It covered about 72 per cent by 1891, 85 per cent by 1911 and 94 per cent by 1951. Analysing the figures of 1951 census the Bihar Report at page 160 mentions that "the proportion of non-agricultural population to the total population is the highest in the South Bihar Plain (19.7 per cent), the Chotanagpur Plateau Division comes next (15.2 per cent) and the North Bihar Plain last (9.6 per cent). There is no district in the South Bihar Plain where the proportion of the non-agricultural population falls below 16.8 per cent. In the district of North Bihar Plain, this proportion varies between 6.2 per cent to 13.3 per cent, Champaran and Saharsa having the lowest proportion of non-agricultural population".

(*b*) That as regards categories of non-agricultural occupations, the Census Report, 1951, mentions that "in the North Bihar Plain, 0.79 million persons or 48.5 per cent of the non-agricultural population derive their livelihood from service and miscellaneous occupations, 28.8 per cent from commerce, 21.4 per cent from production other than cultivation and 4.2 per cent from transport". So that, about 50 per cent of the non-agricultural population of the district derives their livelihood from service and miscellaneous occupations.

The Census of India (1951), Report for Bihar further observes that "the proportion of self-supporting persons is highest in the Chotanagpur Plateau Division (36.8 per cent) there being but little difference between the North Bihar Plain (26.8 per cent) and the South Bihar Plain (26.2 per cent) in this respect. The proportion of earning dependants is 5.3 per cent in South Bihar Plain, 4 per cent in the North Bihar Plain and 2.9 per cent in the Chotanagpur Plateau". The percentages of the North Bihar Plain, which can, if anything, be an over estimate with regard to the district of Champaran.

As mentioned before 50 per cent of the non-agricultural population live on the services and miscellaneous occupation. It would not be out of place here to discuss the scope of this sector of employment as at present.

Champaran is industrially very backward. The only important industry of the district is the sugar industry. There are nine sugar factories employing about 10,000 persons. In addition there are near about 79 rice and oil mills. Another important cottage industry is that of button making, concentrated mostly in Mehsi area and gives employment to a few hundred persons.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE.

With the close of the war, an Employment Information Bureau was set-up in 1946, under the administrative control of the District Magistrate and the technical control of the Sub-Regional Employment Exchange under the Government of India, Ministry of Labour, with a view to re-settling the ex-servicemen in civil jobs. After the partition of the country in 1947, the services of the Employment Information Bureau were thrown open to the displaced persons. Finally the services of the Bureau were thrown open to all categories of employment seekers. The Employment Information Bureau was raised to the status of a full-fledged District Employment Exchange.

Since November, 1956, the administrative control of the Employment Exchange has been transferred to the State Government and is administered by the Labour Department. For administrative purposes, the District Employment Exchange is responsible to the State Director of National Employment Service, through the Sub-Regional Employment Officer at Muzaffarpur. A table below will give an idea of the functions of the District Employment Exchange, Motihari :—

Year.	Registration.	Vacancies notified total.	Vacancies filled total.
1953	4,136	2,205	2,076
1954	5,433	2,328	1,767
1955	3,106	533	399
1956	863	242	169
1957	1,502	261	110

The figures are not encouraging and show that the Employment Exchange is not being properly utilised. The considerably decreasing figures of registration, vacancies notified and filled, indicate apathy of the employer to notify vacancies, apathy of the jobless to resort to the Exchange, the want of employment and probably not much success in bringing the unemployed and the employer together. These figures also indicate the limited scope of the industrial sector or in the public services and may be unawareness of the public due to want of information regarding the scope of the Employment Exchange.

TOTAL POPULATION AND TOTAL PRODUCTION.

The table below explains the relation between the total population and total production of the district as an influence on the standard of living. The figures of 1891 in the table are as per Mr. Macpherson's "*Final report on the last famine of* 1896-97" and quoted in the *Survey and Settlement Report* :—

TABLE.

Year.	Total population.	No. of persons per sq. mile.	Percentage of non-earning dependants.	Total production under all the crops (excluding industrial output (in mds.).	Average yield per acre (approximate figures in mds.).	Total cropped net sown area (in acres).	Aevrage per head of cropped area.	Tota. area of the district (in acres).
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1891	18,59,465	527	..	1,85,77,714	Rabi 8	14,47,668	0.78	20,77,735
					Bhadai 10			
					Aghani 12			
1911	19,08,385	540	..	..	Rabi 5	14,29,859	0.75	20,77,735
					Bhadai 9			
					Aghani 15			
1951	25,15,343	708	70 (approx.).	93,15,000	Rabi 5	15,43,000	0.61	22,64,000
					Bhadai 12			
					Aghani 12			

Before an analysis of the table above is made, it would be better to quote some of the observations made in the *Census Report of India* (1951) *for Bihar* and the *Survey and Settlement Reports* (1892—1899 and 1913—1919), in this connection which are as follows :—

The Census Report of India (*Bihar* 1951) discusses the trend of population in reference to the attracting or distracting capacity of the district with its natural resources. It mentions that "between 1872—1890, the population of Champaran increased by 19.5 per cent. This is attributable mainly to immigration and better enumeration. In the following decade, there was a severe famine in 1897 and also persistent unhealthiness and the population fell by 3.7 per cent but the next decade (1901—1910) again showed a large increase which is attributable chiefly to improvement in public health and economic conditions, though immigration had practically stopped by this time. Owing mainly to ravages from cholera and influenza, the rate of growth fell to 1.7 per cent during 1911—1920. The population increased rapidly during the succeeding two decades........ In the last decade, however, the decennial rate of growth has fallen to 4.8 per cent................, the marked fall being due to the ravages of cholera and small-pox and increase in emigration".

The Survey and Settlement Report of 1913—1919 mentions that "the population of the district made remarkable recovery between 1901 and 1911, in which period it shows the largest proportional increase of the North Bihar districts, just as in 1901 it showed the greatest proportional decrease. It does not appear that there has been any very conspicuous improvement in public health in the decade 1901—1911, though the general impression is that climate has gradually improved".

"Again it will be seen that there has been a decrease in the cultivated area since the last settlement. It is difficult to attribute this to climate or public health, as the decrease has been most marked in thanas Motihari, Kesaria and Govindganj, which are not particularly conspicuous for bad climate or epidemics".

"The chief economic features of the period (1913—1919), beyond a general rise in prices, are the decline of indigo manufacture, the expansion of the sugar industry, and the increase of trade with the outside world".

The period discussed under the last Survey and Settlement Operation (1913—1919), marks out the taking up of trade and commerce by the increasing number of persons, a downward acreage under cultivation, and a general rise of prices.

The Survey and Settlement Report (1892—1899) calculates the gross value of produce on net cropped area, and mentions that "the total value of agricultural produce of the district therefore works out at Rs. 3,52,68, Rs. 908-4-6, that is to Rs. 24-5-9 per acre on the net cropped area".

Some observations on the figures of 1891 and 1951 from the table quoted above would be appropriate. The total population in 1951 is seen increased by about 32.7 per cent, whereas the total cropped area, only by about 10 per cent and the total production decrease by about 50 per cent. The percentages calculated as such, although do not appear to be so very factual because a slight difference in the trend of output per acre, as seen in the column of average output per acre, means a fall only in proportion to the difference in the acreage under cultivation plus some difference in the average outturn per acre, which in combination should not result in so low a total outturn figure. This, however, does show a definite downward trend in the agricultural produce. The density per square mile has increased by about 11.9 per cent. Lastly there is the considerable, rather alarming percentage of the total non-earning dependants in this district. This is partially associated with the hollowness of the employment capacity of the district, the prevalance of the old joint family system, a ruling feature of the agricultural and not of the industrial economy.

To have a fuller view of the total production, the industrial production of the district could be looked into. The industrial sector of the district comprises mainly of the sugar industry with only 9 sugar factories employing about 10,000 persons, rice and oil milling industry with about 79 mills having a labour force of some hundreds of persons only and some other minor ones like button manufacturing, cane and bamboo wares, leather and leather products, iron foundries, etc. From these items again the raw materials of the sugar industries, i.e., sugarcane and of the rice and oil milling industry the rice and paddy, etc., have been accounted for in the agricultural production. So the net production in the industrial sector would come to quite a small figure in this district, being the difference between the cost of raw material and the price obtained for the finished products, plus some other kinds of products from other sources of production named above.

A certain percentage of earnings of the people in the district, comes through the trade and commerce operations and another percentage through miscellaneous occupation and services, but these together with the industrial resources described above, account for only an employment of 6 per cent or even somewhat less of the total population, which show how far these types of earnings, can weigh upon the total production figure of the district and can add to the per capita income as such.

INDEBTEDNESS AMONG THE PEOPLE.

Although this aspect has been discussed in the chapter " Banking, Trade and Commerce ", it would be useful to mention that the indebtedness of the people on the average ranges between Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per capita as per Report given by the Banking Inquiry Committee, 1929, and Rs. 175 per family as per estimate made by the Principal, Munshi Singh College, on a random enquiry basis. The indebtedness has a chronic nature and the vicious spiral to the average family of low income group almost knows no end. The people of Champaran district are notorious for their improvident nature. It has to be realised that agricultural economy by itself can never remove the indebtedness. There must be a mixed economy, a more rational utilisation of existing resources, discovery of more resources, utilisation of forest and water potentiality of the district, etc.

AVERAGE HOLDING OF LAND PER HEAD OR PER FAMILY AND THE SUBSISTENCE HOLDING.

In his *Survey and Settlement Report* (1892–1899) Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore, mentions at page 129, that "all things considered, the average area held by a cultivating family in each thana can be taken to be as follows :—

	Acres.
Bagaha	7
Shikarpur	7
Bettiah	5
Bettiah Subdivision	6
Adapur	5
Dhaka	4.5
Motihari	5.0
Govindganj	5.0
Kessaria	4.0
Madhuban	3.5
Sadar Subdivision	4

"As expected, non-occupancy *raiyat* occupy a larger proportion of area and a greater number of holdings in Bettiah subdivision than in Sadar. The average size of a non-occupancy holding is everywhere very small, 2 acres in the Bettiah subdivision and 1.8 in Sadar."

The Survey and Settlement Operations Report (1913–1919) is silent about the average size of the holding per family, because it mentions that "the area of holdings are much more important, but unfortunately the present system of statistics does not give an accurate account of the facts............... Under the present system, figures are compiled for *khatians*, which do not necessarily, or in fact, represent complete holdings".

The Census of India (1951) *Report* (*Bihar*) mentions that whereas "for the State of Bihar, as a whole, the average size of holdings works out to 3.43 acres on the basis of the data collected during the sample survey of 1952, the corresponding figures for the three natural divisions are: (*i*) North Bihar Plain (in which is included the district of Champaran), 2.04 acres; (*ii*) South Bihar Plain, 2.77 acres and (*iii*) Chotanagpur Plateau, 6.41 acres".

A more elaborate analysis of the size of holdings has been given in the table below, whose data relating to agricultural holdings by size are based on a sample survey carried out by the Department of Agricultural Statistics in April, 1952, at the request of the Superintendent of Census Operations, Bihar. In all 199 villages were selected, one in each Agricultural Statistics Circle, and 13,687 holdings were surveyed. The size of the sample was approximately 0.25 per cent :—

Distribution of 1,000 Agricultural Holdings.

Up to 0.50 acre	281
Exceeding 0.50 acre and up to 1 acre ..	172
Exceeding 1 acre and up to 2 acres	216
Exceeding 2 acres and up to 3 acres	103
Exceeding 3 acres and up to 4 acres	59
Exceeding 4 acres and up to 5 acres	49
Exceeding 5 acres and up to 10 acres	78
Exceeding 10 acres and up to 15 acres	22
Exceeding 15 acres and up to 30 acres	16
Exceeding 30 acres and up to 50 acres	4
50 acres and above	..
Total number of holdings	1,000

The above table shows that 28.1 per cent of the one thousand holding under reference, was found below or up to half an acre and out of the total 77.2 per cent was below or up to 3 acres. The holdings of 4 acres and above account for only 16.9 per cent of the total, which all show the extent of fragmentation and the insignificant percentage of even subsistence holdings with the farmers. Holdings ranging between 15 to 30 acres cover only 1.6 per cent of the total number of 1,000 holdings surveyed on random selection basis.

SUBSISTENCE HOLDING.

Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore has expressed his opinion in his *Report on Survey and Settlement Operations in* 1892—1899 on the subsistence holding as follows :—" An average cultivator's family requires, as I have said, Rs. 75 per annum to live on. (Procedure of calculation as such is given in the table below.) Therefore the subsistence holding, by which I mean a holding sufficient to support an average family in fair comfort, ought to be 3.7 acres or allowing for the portion necessarily left uncultivated, say 4 acres. Though this size is the district average, I think a distinction is required between the Bettiah and Sadar subdivisions. In the former the *bhadai* and *rabi* crops are inferior and some of the paddy land is not very productive. On the other hand, it is not given the same labour. All things considered, it is safest to take the subsistence holding in Bettiah at 5 acres and in the southern subdivision, where crops are more varied and secure, and profitable markets more accessible, at 3½ acres ".

About the procedure of calculation, he writes that " the last census figures work out an average of six souls per occupied house or family in the district which consists of (avoiding fraction) two males, two females and two children. They ought to live on Rs. 77 a year as worked out below :—

Table showing subsistence living requirements.

	(1892 prices).	Expenditure.	(1959 prices).	Expenditure.
	Md. sr. ch. Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.
1. Grains, cheaper kind, 6 persons at ¾ sr. —4½ srs. per day	×365=41 2 8 at 1 6 0 per md.	56 7 3 and at	19.00	780.19
2. Vegetables, ditto at 2 ch. —12 ch. per day	×365= 6 33 12 at 0 4 0 per md.	1 11 3 and at	9.00	65.68
3. Salt, ditto at ⅛ ch. —¾ ch. per day	×365= 0 17 1¾ at 4 0 0 per md.	1 11 3 and at	8.00	3.38
4. Oil, ditto at ⅛ ch. —¾ ch. per day	×365= 0 17 1¾ at 9 0 0 per md.	3 13 6 and at	80.00	33.75
5. Spices, ditto at ⅛ ch. —¾ ch. per day	×365=0 17 1¾ at 6 0 0 per md.	2 7 6 and at	35.00	14.75
6. Tobacco, ditto at 4 as. per month, or Rs. 3 per year	.. ..	3 0 0 and at	2.00	24.00
7. Four *dhotis* for two males at 10 as. each for one year	.. .. ..	2 8 0 and at	4.00 per piece.	16.00
8. Four *saris* for two females at 14 as. each for one year	.. .. ..	3 8 0 and at	4.50 per piece.	18.00
9. Four small *dhotis* for two children at 4 as. each for one year	.. ..	1 0 0 and at	2.00 per piece.	8.00
10. Extra expenses	.. ..	0 8 0 and at	8 times more.	4.00
	Total (as per 1892 prices).	76 10 9	Total (as per 1959 prices.)	967.75

The calculation of cost of living as per current (1959) prices has been based on the observations as follows :—

(*i*) Grains' (cheaper kind) prices have been extracted from the averages of rice and maize prices in currency, because these are the cereals mostly consumed here in this district;

(*ii*) Vegetables' price has been set at the average of the prices of potatoes and brinjals in main;

(*iii*) Tobacco and such other miscellaneous expenses have been set at nearly eight times the quotation of the year 1892, on ratio which synchronises with the price relatives of the different periods under consideration.

In this connection it would not be out of place to mention here that the Central Statistical Organisation's preliminary estimate of national income of India for the year 1957-58 is Rs. 10,830 crores at 1948-49 prices. The revised estimate of national income for 1956-57 is Rs. 11,000 crores at 1948-49 prices.

Expressed at current prices the national income stood at Rs. 11,360 crores in 1957-58 and Rs. 11,310 crores in 1956-57 or Rs. 1,380 crores and Rs. 1,330 crores higher than the 1955-56 level. The per capita income at current prices correspondingly rose from Rs. 260.6 in 1955-56 to Rs. 291.5 in 1956-57 and Rs. 289.1 in 1957-58. The larger increase at current prices than at constant prices was due to price changes.

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN AND SHIFT TOWARDS INDUSTRY FROM AGRICULTURE OR VICE VERSA.

A broad classification of livelihood pattern, has been indicated in the section 'Employment Position' and also in the chapter on 'Other Social Services'.

Out of a total population of 37.52 millions in the State of Bihar, no less than 33.99 millions or 91 per cent of the total rural population are agriculturists, and 97 per cent of the agricultural population lives in rural areas. The only agricultural class of whom the percentages in the rural population is lower than in general population is of those persons who are non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants. Only 9.4 per cent of the rural population derive their principal means of livelihood from non-agricultural sources and of these 40 per cent are accounted for by persons deriving their principal means of livelihood from services and miscellaneous occupations.

In the North Bihar Plain (which includes Champaran district), 92.4 per cent of the rural population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture and only 7.6 per cent on non-agricultural means of livelihood. The following statement shows the percentage of rural population of the North Bihar Plain under each livelihood class :—

Livelihood class I (owners of land mainly owned and dependants).	49.5
Livelihood class II (owners of land mainly unowned and dependants).	11.9
Livelihood class III (cultivating labourers and their dependants).	30.5
Livelihood class IV (non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receiver and their dependants).	0·5
Livelihood class V (production other than cultivation).	1.8
Livelihood class VI (Commerce)	2.1
Livelihood class VII (Transport)	0.2
Livelihood class VIII (other services and miscellaneous).	3.4

The table above, besides showing an overwhelming majority of rural population dependent on agriculture, points out that among the other occupations, the miscellaneous and other services accommodate nearly half the persons who derive their livelihood from non-Agricultural occupations. So that the production other than cultivation, trade and commerce, transport, etc., account for only a fringe of the whole employment organisation, indicating insignificant industrial (small-scale or cottage industries) growth.

The following table shows the livelihood pattern of the urban population of the North Bihar Plains :—

	Number per 10,000 under
Livelihood Class I (owners of land mainly owned, and dependants).	1,525
Livelihood Class II (owners of land mainly unowned and dependants).	262
Livelihood Class II (cultivating labourers and dependants).	1,375
Livelihood Class IV (non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receivers and their dependants).	180
Livelihood Class V (production other than cultivation).	1,027
Livelihood Class VI (Commerce)	2,086
Livelihood Class VII (Transport)	471
Livelihood Class VIII (Other services and miscellaneous).	3,074

There are two reasons for the comparatively high production of agriculturists in the urban population of the North Bihar Plain.

First, with a few exceptions, its towns have grown on account of their importance as headquarters of the district or subdivisional administration, and not as the result of the growth of trade and industry. Second, the list of towns here includes quite a few places which are really overgrown villages or large village marts. The proportion of persons dependent on agriculture among the urban population in Champaran is 36.2 per cent as against North Monghyr's 49.9 per cent and Saran's 43.4 per cent. In Champaran, the agricultural classes outnumber the non-agricultural classes in five towns, namely, Sugauli Bazar, Shikarpur Bazar, Bagaha, Chanpatia Bazar and Kesaria Bazar. Moreover, one feature in the table above has to be noted which indicates that the persons engaged in services are 30.74 per cent of the total under analysis as against of production other than cultivation 10.27 per cent, commerce 20.86 per cent and transport 4.71, which again like the table of rural population, point at scanty progress and development of the industrial sector of the district.

INTRODUCTION AND TERMINATION OF PARTIAL OR TOTAL RATIONING IN THE DISTRICT COMMODITIES RATIONED.

This feature also shows an important economic trend. Champaran has always fed Saran and other districts. The World War II, brought in its wake certain food problems, which required careful distribution of the total output of cereals everywhere. The distribution of food was designed to give primary importance to the military requirements of the country. This is expected when a war is on. This feature naturally created conditions of scarcity for the public. This led to the introduction of 'rationing system'. This system aimed at providing a certain quantity of cereals per head, not according as the needs may be, but according to the stocks at hand. This was applied to the urban areas more than in the rural areas.

So far as this district is concerned, the total rationing in its strict form has never been introduced. But attempts have been made to have a planned distribution of cereals whenever necessary. The bad harvests in the years due to droughts and floods or other reasons have made it incumbent on authorities to have a planned and careful distribution of rice, wheat, etc.

In the year 1947 and a few years before, the procurement of grains and its distribution was in conformity with the process as briefly noted below, from the procurement scheme, 1947-48 (*kharif* crop), according to the directive in D.-O. no. 28259-P.O., Government of Bihar, Supply and Price Control Department, addressed to all Commissioners of Divisions and copies forwarded to all the District Magistrates.

Procurement by Direct Purchases.

The local officers were instructed to make direct purchases of rice in selected rice producing areas, like Manbhum Sadar,*

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* Manbhum Sadar has since been transferred to West Bengal excepting a few thanas. (P. C. R. C.)

Dhalbhum Subdivision, Shahabad, Purnea, Madhubani, Champaran, Gaya, Banka and Santhal Parganas. The purchase was to be made at prices to be prescribed by the Government from time to time. The District Supply Officer was to fix the price levy—

(*a*) The levy was operative throughout the province of Bihar. A broad classification under the heads "canal irrigation" and "lands other than canal irrigated" was adopted in North and South Bihar. The gross produce of the canal irrigated land were assessed at 12 maunds and of the other land at 8 maunds per acre.

(*b*) The levy-list was to be framed carefully by officials but was to be recast in lump or in detail on the suggestion of a committee of non-officials. Special attention was to be given to correct assessment in marginal cases.

(*c*) For failure to comply with the demand notices, action was to be taken on the biggest producers of the locality and working downwards. There was the provision under section 12 of the Essential Supplies (Temporary Powers) Act, 1946 (Act XXIV of 1946), which empowered summary trials of cases arising out of breaches of orders issued in pursuance of the Act.

(*d*) The time-table prescribed for the working of the Levy order was strictly adhered to, and attempts were made to procure the maximum quantity possible in the first two or three months by all methods, viz., Levy, monopoly, and direct purchases.

Distribution.—Storage and storage charges, purchasing agents' commission, milling or handpounding charges, transportation costs, administration expenses, etc., were taken into consideration while fixing a price at which the commodities were to be supplied by the Government. An administrative charge at 4 annas per maund was to be levied on stocks of fine rice supplied to collieries, railways, and other employers of labour.

Government commitments were to be reduced to the minimum, which meant that—

(*i*) all rural supplies were to be stopped except to Government servants drawing a salary of Rs. 150 or less per month. Besides no other foodgrains were to be distributed in the rural area except in the case of established scarcity; and

(*ii*) in urban areas also there was to be no general distribution to persons whose income was less than Rs. 150 per month. Rations became limited to the actual number of dependants only. Sugar mills were allowed a high priority as they were declared to be a public utility concern by the Government and were to get supplies from 1st December, 1947.

By the end of the year 1947, the Government of Bihar in agreement with the Government of India accepted the policy of progressive decontrol with a view to giving up all commitments for procurement and distribution of foodgrains by the end of 1948, and the working patterns of the whole system were attuned as such. To stagger the process of rationing, a start was to be made by cutting of 'A' ration card-holders after due notice followed by overall cut in daily ration leading to a total stoppage.

By the end of the year 1948 and afterwards, large employers of labour and essential industries were to be supplied with foodgrains for the consumption of their labourers and their dependants if desired by them, as was the system before decontrol was adopted in the last year.

The *kharif* year 1950 started under unusual and particularly unfavourable conditions, which called for great vigilance on the part of the local officers. Stringent measures had to be taken to avoid the very unfavourable period. An increased food distribution had to be arranged for both by increased imports and internal procurement, stopping exports of food, saving grain and general relief measures including distribution of loans.

The maximum possible quantity of the paddy crops grown within the district had to be procured during the year by several methods referred to above.

The purchase of Nepal paddy and rice by other foodgrain dealers was allowed but export outside the district was regulated by permits issued by the local District Magistrates or the District Supply Officers.

The basic procurement prices were to be the same as the previous year, i.e., Rs. 8 per maund for paddy and Rs. 13-4-0 per maund for coarse rice and Rs. 14-4-0 per maund for medium rice and Rs. 14 per maund for wheat. The only difference in the year 1950 was that the basic price was payable at village site. In addition cartage at the rate of 1 anna per maund per mile to the nearest purchasing centre was allowed to the cultivators.

Distribution.—In view of the scarcity conditions that were preapprehended due to the failure of the autumn and winter crop and the uncertain prospects of *rabi* crop, distribution was made on the basis of ration cards. The urban areas were immediately covered by the scheme. Distribution in rural areas was also carefully planned. Estimates of loss of grain and degree of scarcity and probable assistance needed for affected pockets were worked out. Lists of all persons in need of foodgrains being supplied, were prepared and they were given ration cards indicating the number of adults and children. Fair price shops at convenient centres were opened. The quantity of ration varied from 10 ounces to 12 ounces per head per day with 4 ounces in addition for heavy manual workers and half of each for the children was to be fixed from time to time by the District Officers considering the stock in hand.

The system of fair price shops has almost come to stay. They go slow when there are good crops and available at reasonable price. They shoot up whenever there is scarcity. The brief report which follows, for the years 1957 and 1958, will indicate the organisation, function and service offered by the Fair Price Shops, and throws a considerable light on the present economic trends. The report has been compiled from the Weekly Scarcity Report in Form IX of the Bihar Famine and Flood Relief Code, for the district of Champaran for the week ending the 25th June, 1958, and also for the week ending 26th June, 1957.

In the year 1958 (June), the scarcity was caused due to low yield of *bhadai* and *aghani*. *Bhadai* was damaged due to flood and *aghani* due to drought. The distress had increased due to want of rains in the month of May, and in the first fortnight of the month of June as a result of which, summer crops and paddy seedlings dried up.

Parts of almost all the 25 police-stations were affected. The extent of distress is shown by the following table :—

Affected area.

Subdivision.	Total area in sq. miles.	Area affected in sq. miles.	Total population.	Population affected.
1	2	3	4	5
Sadar	1,528	765	14,45,378	9,44,000
Bettiah	1,997	1,210	11,00,000	8,06,000 (Including displaced persons).

Supply of grains through Fair Price Shops or Ration Shops was arranged as follows :—

(*i*) Number of Fair Price Shops functioning including the numbers opened during the week under report for sale of food-grains—

Sadar	439
Bettiah	338
District Total	777

(*ii*) Population served by these Fair Price Shops 26,63,000

(*iii*) Quantity in maunds of grains issued during the period from stockists' godowns and gratuitous distribution to the indigents—

	Off-take during the week.		Progressive total of the off-take since 1st April 1957.	
	Rice.	Wheat.	Rice.	Wheat.
1	2	3	4	5
		Mds.	Mds.	Mds.
Bettiah	Nil	21,264 (including 2,001 mds. gratuitous relief).	226	4,30,841
Bettiah	Nil	17,421 (including 1,723 mds. gratuitous relief).	365	3,43,188
District—Total ..	Nil	38,685	591	7,74,029

The reason for the low off-take of wheat during the week in both the subdivisions, was inadequacy of stock. However, in the year 1957-58, 2,07,166 Family Ration Cards were issued and distributed up-to-date to so many families in the Sadar subdivision and 89,000 covering so many families in the Bettiah subdivision.

Names of Anchals or Blocks.	No. of Fair Price Shops.	Off-take in maunds.	
Motihari	40	1,310	
Turkaulia	25	2,148	
Sugauli	16	2,016	(Harsidih included).
Ramgarwa	29	4,200	
Raxaul	28	3,225	
Adapur	19	920	
Narkatia	16	886	
Ghorasahan	25	1,110	
Dhaka	20	953	(Dhaka police-station).
Chiraiya	15	..	
Patahi	15	339	
Pakri Dayal	16	390	
Madhuban	20	600	
Mehsi	13	640	
Chakia	23	1,317	(Kalyanpur included).
Kalyanpur	32	..	
Kesaria	20	480	
Areraj	35	780	
Harsidih	18		
Paharpur	15		
Total	404	21,314	

Bettiah Subdivision.

Names of Anchals or Blocks.	No. of Fair Price Shops functioning.	Off-take in maunds.
Majhaulia	41	616
Bettiah	51	3,177
Nautan	20	1,476 (Nautan police-station).
Bairiya	22	..
Chanpatia	28	..
Sikta	16	..
Mainatand	7	..
Gaunaha	19	..
Shikarpur	14	..
Ramnagar	17	..
Jogapatti	26	2,819
Lauriya	14	2,201 (Lauriya police-station).
Bagaha	39	2,371
Sidhao	25	1,243
Dhanaha I	23	..
Dhanaha II	16	..
Thakaraha	..	883
Total	378	14,786

Supply of grain through Fair Price Shops and Ration Shops—

(*i*) Number of Fair Price Shops functioning (including the number opened during the period under report)—

	Opened.	Functioning.
Sadar	19	159
Bettiah	1	143

(*ii*) Quarterly of maunds of grains issued during the period from stockists' godowns and progressive totals of off-take from the 1st April, 1957—

	Off-take during the week.		Progressive total since 1st April 1957.	
	Rice.	Wheat.	Rice.	Wheat.
1	2	3	4	5
	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.	Mds.
Sadar	Nil	1,345	112	11,601
Bettiah	Nil	2,129	140	18,624

So that the statements above show that whereas the number of Fair Price Shops in the whole district was 320 only in the year 1957, this rose to 827 in the year 1958, an increase of 153.7 per cent. Besides the off-take during the week in the year 1958, of wheat was 38,685 maunds, as against 3,474 maunds only in the year 1957, indicating a tremendous increase here also, which all point out to the growing prominence of the Fair Price Shops in the district. But side by side this state of affairs hints at the cautious move of the Government to regulate price in the deficient economy of the district.

Price and Wage Indexes concerning the period 1939—1957 current Economic Trends.

The discussion above, has tried to give a picture of the economic trends, drawn from a long range. There are also particular trends, the short term, year to year variations either way, good or bad in the economic field. So that an analysis of prices and wages, the main determinants of the economic trends, since the year 1939, which will be able to indicate some of the smaller features but highly suggestive. The year 1939, has been chosen, inasmuch as, this year, with the beginning of the Second Great World War had caught up the economic system in its vertex, and led it through different phases. The severe depression of the year 1929, had reached its bottom, and rather the economy was enjoying a breathing space, when the military requirements initiated a boom period and the prices began to rise.

The following table gives the prices of rice (medium), wheat and gram (per maund), from the year 1941, the year in which the efforts to face the War began bearing fruits and the prices, wages, etc., were affected :—

	Medium rice.	Wheat.	Gram.
June—	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p
1941	5 10 6	..	3 5 6
1942	6 8 0	..	4 3 0
1943	26 8 0	18 0 0	14 0 0
1944	13 8 0	14 8 0	10 0 0
1945	16 0 0	11 8 0	8 8 0
1946	14 0 0	14 0 0	11 8 0
1947	11 13 0	11 13 0	15 0 0
1948	24 0 0	27 0 0	16 0 0
1949	25 8 0	24 0 0	14 0 0
1950	27 8 0	26 0 0	20 0 0

	Medium rice.	Wheat.	Gram.
October.—	Rs. a. p	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1951	..	..	..
1952	..	..	..
1953	27 0 0	20 0 0	..
1954	16 0 0	..	..
1955	17 8 0	14 4 0	..
1956	19 0 0	17 8 0	..
1957	24 0 0	18 4 0	..
1958	27 0 0	..	..
April, 1959	26 8 0	26 0 0	..

An analysis of the table shows that the price of the rice and gram had taken to rising, suddenly increasing by 471.1 per cent and 433.9 per cent in the year 1943. Afterwards a fall has been recorded rather considerably, but the prices again settled in the year 1950 at a price slightly higher than that of the year 1943. It appears from the statement that the economic system of the district has become such that the prices seem to have a tendency of settling at a figure even higher than that of the year 1943, somewhat at five times more than that. In this connection the table below showing working class index number for Muzaffarpur, may also be taken to represent facts about Champaran.

WORKING CLASS CONSUMER PRICE INDEX NUMBER TAKEN FROM THE DIRECTORATE OF ECONOMICS AND STATISTICS, BIHAR.

Base : *Year ending July,* 1939—100.

Year.	
1952	509
1953	479
1954	423
1955	401

The Price Index above hints at a level of prices, getting lower but the year afterwards, of which the calculation as such has not been made is not at all encouraging. The common man of the district is very much worried over the rising prices of foodgrains and other essential commodities of daily use. In the middle of January, 1959, the coarse rice was being sold at the rate of Rs. 18 per maund, medium at the rate of Rs. 20 per maund and the fine at the rate of Rs. 25 per maund which rose to Rs. 21, Rs. 24 and Rs. 27 per maund, respectively, in the month of February, 1959. But the price of coarse rice has gone up to Rs. 23 per maund, medium to Rs. 26 per maund and the fine to Rs. 30 to Rs. 38 per maund. Similar is the condition of the prices of other foodgrains, viz., gram is sold at the rate of Rs. 20 to Rs. 27 per maund, maize at the rate of Rs. 27 to Rs. 30 per maund, *kerao* at the rate of Rs. 30 to Rs. 32, *matar* at the rate of Rs. 30, wheat in the open market at the rate of Rs. 26 per maund, *rahar dal* at the rate of Rs. 38 and *masur dal* at the rate of Rs. 36 per maund. No doubt the price of wheat supplied through the Government Fair Price Shops is at the rate of Rs. 14-14-0 and of the rice at the rate of Rs. 20 nearly per maund, but the quota supplied at present has been reduced by half and the rice is not well consumable and the dealers do not lift it.

Besides these commodities, there is also a marked rise in the prices of spices of common use and kerosene oil.

It is difficult to find out the causes of this spiral rising of prices. The general opinion somewhat is that the paddy procurement scheme of the Government has proved to be a cause of this high price. Farmers have become unwilling to part with their produce at the low price the Government have fixed for paddy and rice, and on the other hand the rice mill owners have closed their mills due to the Government order that they would have to supply 50 per cent of their pounded rice to the Government. This quota has now been cut to 25 per cent but the mill owners have not yet responded. Unfortunately there is not much of public co-operation to work out the well-thought-out schemes.

Another cause of the rising prices is reported to be the 50 per cent cut in the supply of wheat of the original quota to the Government Fair Price Shops. It is also said by a section of farmers that paddy crop during the last harvest was not so bumper as imagined by the authorities. The yield was no doubt good in comparison to a few years in the past.

Some of these thoughts are no doubt stray and there has not been a proper appraisal of the working of the rationing scheme. But these thoughts underline the extreme sensitiveness of the economy of the district as mentioned even in the Survey and Settlement Report (1892—1899).

WAGES.

As regards wages the following statements are of considerable importance :—

Statements showing average daily wages paid to agricultural labourers in Champaran during the years 1953—1955.

Skilled Labourers.

Carpenter.			Blacksmith.			Cobblers.		
1953.	1954.	1955.	1953.	1954.	1955.	1953.	1954.	1955.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
3 6 2	2 6 6	2 7 9	3 6 2	2 6 6	2 7 9	3 6 2	2 6 6	2 7 9

Field Labourers.

Men.			Women.			Children.		
1953.	1954.	1955.	1953.	1954.	1955.	1953.	1954.	1955.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1 8 6	1 10 4	1 7 4	1 8 6	1 6 8	1 7 0	1 3 8	1 2 2	1 2 0
Other Agricultural Labourers.								
1 14 2	1 10 1	1 7 4	1 8 6	1 6 7	1 7 0	1 3 8	1 2 2	1 2 0
Herdsmen.								
1 8 6	1 10 1	1 7 4	..	..	..	..	..	..

The statements above giving the wages of different class of labourers, may well be taken to represent the current average too, because there has been no appreciable change as such. However, the trend of the rates paid, will get ample light from the table below which presents a proportionate picture of payment, taken from the Report on Agricultural Wages in India, Vol. II.

Average rates of wages for various types of payments according to nature of agricultural operation.

Agricultural operations and year of ploughing.	Without perquisites.			With perquisites.		
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Men.	Women.	Children.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1938-39 ..	0 2 8	..	..	0 4 0	..	0 2 6
1949-50 ..	0 13 8	..	0 12 0	0 3 10	..	0 14 0

The statements above although record considerably varied figures of nominal wages yet the real wages have shown the static condition, so this does not require more comments. However, one thing has been noticeable that the price changes have told upon the wages where they are strictly confined to cash, because the proportion of increase in the wages always lags behind the proportion of the rise in prices, and as a result the real wages, when calculated through cash payment is lower than that actually paid in the kind rate.

Regarding wages the following paragraph is in R. E. Swanzy's revised District Gazetteer :—

"The wages of skilled labour have risen very considerably in the last fifty or sixty years. The following table will show the rise in daily wages since 1870 :—

Trades.	1870.	1906.	1931.
1	2	3	4
Carpenter	2 annas	4—5 annas	10—12 annas
Mason	2½—3½ annas	3½—4 annas	6—8 annas
Blacksmith	2 annas	3—4 annas	8—12 annas

The wages of unskilled labour have not risen so much. In 1874-75 the daily wages for coolies and agricultural labour were 2½ annas for a man, 1½ annas for a woman and 1 anna for a boy. They now are 3 to 6 annas for a man, 3 annas for a woman and about 1½ to 2 annas for a boy. The wages of agricultural labourers are often paid in kind, and are now 6 *kutcha* seers of grain per day per adult. Also in villages, blacksmiths, carpenters, barbers, watchmen, washermen are sometimes paid in kind."

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Agriculture, Industries, Trade and Commerce, Transport and Communication, the major sector of employment, still leave a fringe of population unaccounted for who find employment in miscellaneous occupations, like Public Administration, learned professions, domestic and personal services, etc. The number of persons in the miscellaneous occupations, although occupy a very small percentage in the employment structure have an important bearing on the society and the administration. They form the intelligentia and are the cream of the middle class which is the backbone of the district. They are the unacknowledged leaders of the society. The bulk of them are urban dwellers as the chances of getting suitable employments in the rural areas are lesser. The table below as per census of 1951 gives the number of persons employed by the State Government, Union Government and Municipalities :—

Employees of the State Government.

Employees of the State Government.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
RURAL.								
Motihari Revenue Thana (excluding Motihari, Lauthaha and Sugauli towns).	48	..	..	..	48	..	..	..
Adapur Revenue Thana (excluding Raxaul town).	34	..	..	..	34	..	..	..
Patahi police-station ..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Kessaria Revenue Thana (excluding Kessaria town).	68	..	..	..	68	..	..	..
Jogpatti, Sikta and Chainpatia police-stations (excluding Chainpatia town).	12	..	..	..	12	..	..	..
Bagaha Revenue Thana (excluding Bagaha town).	10	..	..	..	10	..	..	..
TOTAL—RURAL ..	173	..	..	..	173	..	..	..
URBAN.								
All towns of Champaran district (Motihari, Lauthaha, Sugauli, Raxaul, Chakia, Kessaria, Bettiah, Chainpatia, Shikarpur and Bagaha).	237	7	..	..	237	7	..	.
TOTAL—URBAN ..	237	7	..	..	237	7	..	.
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	410	7	..	..	410	7	..	

Employees of the Union Government.

Employees of the Union Government.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
RURAL.								
Bettiah, Majhaulia and Nautan police-stations (excluding Bettiah town).	3	..	..	..	3	..	..	..
Ramnagar and Lauria police-stations.	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Bagaha Revenue Thana (excluding Bagaha town).	2	..	..	..	2	..	..	..
TOTAL—RURAL ..	6	..	..	..	6	..	..	..
URBAN.								
All towns of Champaran district (as mentioned above).	206	4	..	..	206	4	..	..
TOTAL—URBAN ..	206	4	..	..	206	4	..	..
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	212	4	..	..	212	4	..	..

Employees of Municipalities and Local Boards.

Employees of the Municipalities and Local Boards.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
RURAL.								
Adapur Revenue Thana (excluding Raxaul town).	6	1	..	..	6	1	..	..
Patahi police-station ..	33	2	..	..	33	2	..	..
Jogpatti, Sikta and Chainpatia (excluding Chainpatia town).	10	..	..	..	10	..	..	..
Bagaha Revenue Thana (excluding Bagaha town).	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
TOTAL—RURAL ..	49	4	..	..	49	4	..	..
URBAN.								
All towns of the district as above.	23	4	..	..	23	4	..	..
TOTAL—URBAN ..	23	4	..	..	23	4	..	..
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	72	8	..	..	72	8	..	..

These figures of 1951 must have gone a big change by now (1959). The abolition of *zamindari*, extension of the National Extension Service Blocks and Community Development Projects must have increased the population in the Government services several times.

The amenities include provision of living quarters (which is inadequate), free or controlled medical help for self and family members, monetary advances under certain circumstances, etc. The State does not provide anywhere free education for the children but in the competition for getting admission in educational institutions the wards of Government servants may get somewhat preferential treatment.

PUBLIC EMPLOYEES' WELFARE OR SOCIAL ORGANISATION.

As regards the public employees' welfare or social organisation, there is only one worth mentioning and that is District Ministerial Officers' Association.

The executives of this Association could not show records as to when it was founded. It was, however, in existence in 1928. In 1937, an annual conference was held at Motihari, in which about 200 delegates from other districts of Bihar participated.

In the past, the highest Ministerial Officers, such as Office Superintendent and Sheristadar, used to be elected as the President, but since 1957 there has been a change and outsiders who are interested are also elected.

The Association has its own bye-laws and is guided by a set of model rules adopted by the Bihar Ministerial Officers' Conference at Bhagalpur in the year 1945. It elects an Executive Committee to run the business of this Association from year to year.

The members of the Association number at present 575. Every assistant working in the offices of any department, under the State Government stationed in the district could become its member on payment of a monthly subscription of annas four (twenty-five *naiye paise*). Membership ceases automatically on retirement or termination of service.

The Association has been able to build a small building for the purpose of Club-*cum*-Library with the help of 50 per cent contribution from the National Extension Service Block fund.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS.

It is unfortunate that even fairly approximate number of the persons who follow learned professions like teaching, medical practice, legal practice, etc., is not available. The *District Census Hand-Book,* 1951, does not appear to give correct data as the system of grouping of the literates is not meant to indicate the number of persons following learned professions. In the text of Education and

Culture the figures of the educational institutions at various stages have been indicated. In the Second Five-Year Plan more basic schools are being opened and the number of teachers is multiplying. The number of persons following the profession of teaching has been indicated to be 219 in the *District Census Hand-Book* based on 1951 census. This appears to be an under-statement since the Plans are being worked out after the census of 1951 was taken and this number should not be taken as an indicator. According to the *District Census Hand-Book* the total number of doctors in the district is 35 only. This number is also a clear under-estimate. Doctors will include not only allopathic practitioners but also at least qualified homeopaths, *vaidyas* and *hakims*. Owing to the expansion of the National Extension Service Blocks and Community Development Blocks the number of doctors in the rural areas must have multiplied. Unfortunately, it is not that all the qualified allopaths are members of the District Branch of the State Medical Association. A report in 1958 gave the number of the members of the three Branches in the district of the State Medical Association as 85. This number does not appear to include many of the doctors who have settled down in the rural areas, doctors in the Mission hospitals and District Board doctors. Similarly the figure of 31 as lawyers in the district in the *District Census Hand-Book* based on 1951 census is clearly under-stated. In the towns of Motihari and Bettiah where there are courts the number of practising lawyers is much larger. It is also doubtful if this number has included the Mukhtears who are still practising at these two places. Similarly there are (civil, mechanical and electrical) engineers, veterinary doctors, technically qualified builders, plumbers, sanitary engineers, etc., who do not appear to have been properly categorised in the last census.

Although we do not have a correct estimate, it would be ambitious to put the figure of the men following learned professions at more than a few thousands and certainly below five thousand. Their number is small when the total population of the district is taken into account. The role that they fill in is extremely important and as mentioned before it is they who form a considerable part of the educated middle class. They form the leaders of the society and each one of them is indirectly upgrading some illiterate or uneducated persons.

Persons following the professions have been very hardly hit by the spiral rise of prices. The basic pay of the teachers has not altered widely and many of the basic school and primary school teachers probably draw a lower salary than the class IV Government employees like orderlies, peons, office *chaukidars*, drivers, etc. In order to make the two ends meet the teachers as a class have taken to private coaching which unfortunately in some cases leads to a sense of complacence amounting to unfairness. The recent innovation of personal appraisal of students in the schools has encouraged this attitude. Another source of income for the teachers is examiner's fees. That leads to a craze to get more papers and possibly the standard of examination has been lowered. The basic problem of a teacher is to supplement his meagre income from the school or college and in this attempt he loses the vital touch which he ought to keep up with the students. He cannot probably be blamed for what he does as it is necessary to keep the pot boiling. Special problems before the doctors are multifarious. A doctor in Government service has an advantage over his colleagues who are not. There is a certain income for him known as the chair practice for granting certificates of illness and fitness or age for injuries. The Government doctors are still allowed private practice and since the pay is deliberately kept slightly lower than the Government servant of similar cadre elsewhere they are more bent on getting larger private practice. Research is practically absent among the doctors in this district. The incidence of goitre is peculiar for the district and the interest of the doctors is in getting goitre patients but not finding the reasons for goitre in this district. As long as Government doctors are not put on a non-practising basis the evil cannot be cured. The competition before the non-Government doctors is keen. They do not possess the proper background or equipments for very specialised line of treatment. There is no spirit of research among them and it is not possible for them to carry on any research which means expenditure and no practice. The result is that about all of them are general practitioners. Another special problem is the want of proper pharmacies and pharmacists in the rural areas. A doctor can only prescribe medicines. The dearth of proper pharmacies and pharmacists has been further accentuated by the recent ban on import of foreign drugs. It is also difficult to get a proper surgeon for serious cases among the non-Government doctors. The higher prices have affected the practice of non-Government doctors and it is likely to go down further with the development of the rural medical centres in connection with the National Extension Service Block or Community Development Block. The young doctors in these Blocks have also taken a gloomy view of their prospects. Most of them are allergic to stay in rural conditions and complain of want of facilities for work other than that of a general physician. It is, however, expected that the initial difficulties of the doctor at these Blocks will be removed.

The most hard hit of the learned professions are the lawyers. The accredited leaders of the society, the lawyers now find themselves in great difficulties because of the changed circumstances. The abolition of *zamindaris,* the rapid extension of the *panchayat* courts and the diminishing paying capacity of the litigants are their problems. It is true that some special departments like the Commercial Taxes Department, Income-tax Department, etc., are becoming important and may offer a fresh avenue for the lawyers. But that can absorb only a handful of them. The relationship of the Bench and the Bar is also another problem. The Champaran Bar has always co-operated with the Bench and has maintained their own dignity.

Arts, Letters and Journalism.

A district like Champaran cannot possibly have in the present circumstances a good scope for professionals in arts, letters and journalism. The newspapers that are published within the district have a very small circulation and usually a one-man show. There are a few correspondents to journals and newspapers published elsewhere. The very few men of letters within the district are men who follow some other learned professions. There are very few men depending for the livelihood as a practising artist or a professional writer. The relevant figures according to 1951 census are as follows :—

Occupation.	Total.		Employees.		Independent. workers.	
Arts, letters and journalism.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
RURAL.						
Patahi police-station	16	..	16	..	..	..
TOTAL—RURAL ..	16	..	16	..	..	..
URBAN.						
All towns of Champaran district (Motihari, Lauthaha, Sugauli, Raxaul, Chakia, Kessariya, Bettiah, Chanpatia, Shikarpur and Bagaha).	114	18	35	18	79	..
TOTAL—URBAN ..	114	18	35	18	79	..
DISTRICT TOTAL ..	130	18	51	18	79	..

Religious, charitable and welfare services.—Priests were once held in high esteem among respective religious communities and they enjoyed both social and economic securities. Many of them were full time professionals and some at least earned a lot. But their number is fast dwindling and only in the temples and mosques a few whole-timers are found. Their obligatory presence and guidance during marriage and *sradh* ceremonies also are on the wane. The persons engaged in social and welfare services are also not large and their number including that of professional religious persons available from the *District Census Hand-Book of Champaran,* 1951, does not give a correct position. The total number of persons engaged in religious, charitable and welfare services in the census of 1951 was 1,063 out of which 878 were males and 185 females.

With their turning to the activities other than spiritual and loss of learning they have naturally lost much of their hold on the public. The spread of education also has allayed the previous popular faith in them.

Domestic and personal services.—The personnel under domestic and personal services will include domestic servants, washermen, barbers, tailors, etc. It is not possible to get the number of domestic servants in the district. Their population according to the *District Census Hand-Book* is as follows :—

Domestic servants	1,637*
Tailors	Not available.
Barbers and Beauty Shop employees ..	866
Washermen	1,299

It is not possible to come to their correct figures as there is a good deal of interchange of services among them. A domestic servant thrown out of employment will probably take to the profession of a barber if he is a barber by caste and knows the technique. The general trend now is to take up personal services in institutions like *chaprasis,* peons or office *chaukidars.* Sweepers who should be categorised under domestic servants change their profession far too often. The figures of the different categories of domestic and personal services appear to be an under-statement in some cases and over-statement in others. The detailed figures given in the *District Census Hand-Book* mention that in the rural areas barbers and beauty shop owners come to 470 males and 113 females. This clearly appears to be an under-statement. Every sizeable village or at least two such villages will surely give employment to one barber. In the rural areas there are hardly any beauty shop owners which appears to be an ambitious and poetic description of a hair cutting saloon. The total employment of barbers and beauty shop owners in the urban areas are shown to be 225 males and 28 females. This appears to be more accurate. The total rural employment in laundries and laundry services are 832 males and 239 females while those for urban sector are 230 males and 20 females.

The general economic condition of the men categorised under domestic and personal services is comparatively much better than that of an educated man who unfortunately is in the lower income group. A sweeper's family consisting of husband and wife, two adult children and one minor child aged about 10 years means that everyone of them earns as a sweeper if the family is in town. Their standard of life has not gone up while their earnings have gone up sky-high. A domestic servant who belongs to the occupational caste where domestic service is common will earn himself and his wife will also earn probably more than the husband by working at several places. An average barber in the urban areas does not earn anything less than Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 a day. The same remarks made about the sweepers would also apply to the washermen where every adult member and a minor child of near about 10 years earn on their own. As a matter of fact, to such classes a child is a financial asset and it is doubtful if family planning could quickly be spread amongst them.

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* Superintendent of Census Operations admits: "This is an error of classification which was detected at the final checking but it was then too late to rectify it." Page 101, *District Census Hand-Book of Champaran,* 1951.

Their general economic condition is rather imbalanced in the social structure to which they belong. It is this income much larger than what they probably need has led to a sense of indiscipline, an excess of drinking, smoking and immoral habits. The domestic servants, barbers, washermen, tailors, etc., have not yet got separate well-organised unions. But a beginning has been made by the washermen who now dictate that they will not iron their clothes on a particular date and would not serve below a fixed rate. Such movements are more confined to the urban areas which absorb the bulk of personnel under the categories of domestic and personal services.

The encouragement in the formation of labour organisations comes from the fact mentioned before that their scale of wages has gone up very high. The present average rate of daily wages of some of such men are given below as against noted by W. W. Hunter in 1870 :—

	1870.	1958.
Washermen	.. 3, 4, 5 annas per score of clothes.	Rs. 8 to 10 per hundred of clothes.
Barbers	.. 4 to 8 annas per month.	Rs. 3 to 4 per month.
Tailors	.. 3 annas per day	.. Rs. 3 to 4 per day.
Oilmen	.. 3 annas per day	..
Peons and grass-cutters.	Rs. 3 per month	.. Rs. 40 to 50 per month.
Chamars	.. 2½ annas per day	.. Rs. 2 per day.

It may be mentioned here that besides earning their wages the State Government have given them certain facilities regarding education and other welfares as many of them belong to Scheduled Castes and *Harijans*.

CHAPTER IX.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Sirkar Champaran was the proprietary right of the Bettiah Raj from the middle of the seventeenth century, when it was acquired by a successful military adventurer, Raja Ugra Sen Singh. His direct successors ruled up to two years before the Diwani Grant, but the last of them having died without any male issue, was succeeded by his daughter's son, Raja Jugal Keshwar Singh, who was on the *gaddi* in 1766. He, however, fell into arrears of revenue and in the words of the judges of the Diwani Adalat, he "rebelled and fought with the forces of the British Government, was defeated and fled to Bundelkhand for safety and his *Rajgi* was seized upon and brought under the direct management of the Company. But the Company found its revenue grew less and less". The *Final Report of the Survey and Settlement Operations* (1900) by C. J. Stevenson-Moore, mentions: "In May 1771, the Patna Council, by conciliatory overtures to Jugal Keshwar Singh, persuaded him to return to the Company's territories and this Council in the following June made a partition of the Sirkar, giving the parganas of Majhawa and Semraon to him, and those of Mehsi and Babra to Shrikishan and Abdhut Singh, the grandson of Gaj Singh, for their support. This arrangement was sanctioned by Government and *malikana* was paid to Jugal Keshwar and after his death in 1784, to his son, Bir Keshwar Singh on the one side, and to Shrikishan and Abdhut on the other, until the formation of the Decennial Settlement".

During the early years of British administration in Sarkar Saran, this Sirkar comprised both the present districts of Saran and Champaran. From the year 1837 there used to be a Magistrate stationed at Motihari which is now the headquarters of Champaran district. In 1866, Saran was formed into a district separate from Champaran which was given the status of a district. Quite early, it was realised that the location of the courts at Saran was rather inconvenient for the people of Champaran. A letter from the Commissioner, dated the 5th April, 1830, mentioned that "the cultivating classes in Champaran were rather unprotected and that there was required some permanent arrangement for enabling the people to obtain redress of their grievances". The Commissioner further remarked in the same letter that "a court so incommodiously situated with respect to Champaran as that of Saran is, in effect denies justice to all the poorer classes of that district".* His recommendation was that "to extend effectual relief to this part of the country, however, it will be necessary to have a Joint Magistrate and Sub-Collector stationed in the neighbourhood of Bettiah. The expense of such an establishment will no doubt be considerable, but that will probably be nearly met by the Stamp Revenue which will be derived from the establishment of a court in that part of the country. Be this, however, as it may, protection is due to the people and the Government will, I doubt not, be disposed to afford it on the circumstances represented by the Collector being brought to its notice". In reply to this the Sadar Board of Revenue on the 16th April, 1830, informed in their letter no. 32, that the Commissioner should first consult with the Judge of the district and then make a reference to Government in the Judicial Department. Champaran was ultimately created a separate district in 1866. It took a long time to come to a firm decision although the necessity of the move was realised much earlier.

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* Quoted in the book '*Sarkar Saran*' by Shri P. C. Roy Choudhury (Gazetteers' Revision Section, Bihar).

The administrative problems in the early years of the British administration in this area were many. It was mainly concerned with maintenance of law and order. The administrator in Champaran district had to devote himself to restore peace and order in the area. Frequent raids from Nepal, portion of which formed the border line of the district, frequent boundary disputes, and general insecurity of the people, all added to the manifold duty of the Magistrate and Collector of Sarkar Saran. "In that period of extreme lawlessness and confusion, it was not possible to have the administrative authority delegated to several persons or decentralised and perforce had to be concentrated in one person".*

Administrative changes which were much more frequent in the times of early British occupation and gradually lesser afterwards, have been extensively referred to in the chapter on General Administration of the *Saran District Gazetteer*. As the present districts of Saran and Champaran formed one district till 1866, a detailed description for that period has not been given here.

JUDGESHIP AND MAGISTRACY.

A Brief Historical Sketch.

In 1866, Champaran got a separate status as a district, independent of Saran. The district is divided into two subdivisions, Sadar and Bettiah, with the district headquarters at Motihari. In 1837, a Magistrate was stationed at Motihari. In 1852, the Bettiah subdivision was established with headquarters at Bettiah. This district was under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge of Saran with headquarters at Chapra till 1906, when it was placed under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge of Muzaffarpur with headquarters at Muzaffarpur.

When the East India Company first acquired possession of Champaran, a Munsiff's Court was for a time located at Mehsi, which is said to have been the Sadar or Chief Civil Station in Champaran. The remains of the Court buildings, Jail and of some European bungalows still exist there. It also appears that there was a Munsiff's Court at Dhaka, because in the District Judge's Record Room at Motihari, there is a record of T. S. no. 52 of 1831 which refers to the Court of Munsiff of Dhaka. From 1832 there is a Munsiff's Court functioning at Motihari, which was designated as Munsiff of Champaran. In the District Judge's Record Room, the oldest record found is that of R. S. no. 42 of 1832 in the Court of Munsiff of Champaran. The Court of the Munsiff of Bettiah was established in October, 1918. Mr. Ananta Nath Mitra, who was Munsiff at Motihari was appointed as the first Munsiff at Bettiah. A temporary Court of the Sub-Judge was established at Motihari on 6th June 1921. Mr. Nut Bihari Chatterjee was the first Sub-Judge at Motihari. This Court became permanent from 1st January, 1925, but it continued to be under the District and Sessions Judge of Muzaffarpur and the Sub-Judge could only hear appeals from the judgments of the Munsiff of Motihari and Bettiah up to the value of Rs. 500 and appeals above this value were filed before the District Judge of Muzaffarpur. A separate Court of the District and Sessions Judge of Champaran was established with effect from 1st June 1945, and Khan Bahadur Md. Ibrahim was the first District and Sessions Judge of Champaran with headquarters at Motihari.

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* Quoted in '*Sarkar Saran*' by Shri P. C. Roy Choudhury (Gazetteers' Revision Section, Bihar).

Since the creation of this Judgeship, the people of Champaran have been greatly benefited as now they have not to go to Muzaffarpur for their cases. There has been an increase in civil litigation. There is one Sessions Court presided over by the District and Sessions Judge, who hears sessions cases, criminal appeals and criminal revisions. The District Judge hears also civil appeals from the decisions of the Munsiffs and Subordinate Judges up to the value of Rs. 5,000, extended even up to Rs. 10,000 recently.

A Court of the Subordinate Judge is vested with unlimited civil pecuniary jurisdiction. He is also vested with the powers of an Assistant Sessions Judge and empowered to pass sentence up to ten years. He is also to hear criminal appeals from the decision of second and third class Magistrates. He is also vested with Small Cause Court and Civil Appellate powers. He is empowered to hear appeals preferred against the decision of the Munsiff, which are transferred to his file by the District Judge. One permanent Munsiff is stationed at Motihari and one at Bettiah who try cases up to the value of Rs. 4,000. They are vested with Small Cause Court powers up to Rs. 250. Statements showing the number of cases of different types instituted and tried have been given in the chapter on 'Law, Order and Justice'.

Besides the permanent Courts, additional Courts are arranged when there is a congestion of civil suits and cases. At present one

Additional Sub-Judge and two Additional Munsiffs are holding Courts at Motihari and one at Bettiah.

The idea of the Magistrate combining both executive and judicial functions has been unpopular since many decades. In the earlier years the annual sessions of the Indian National Congress also used to condemn this.

From the 1st of July, 1957, there has been separation of the Executive and Judicial functions in the district and Judicial Magistrates and Munsiff-Magistrates have been placed under the control of the District and Sessions Judge. They try all the criminal cases under the Indian Penal Code and the matters under the Criminal Procedure Code continue to be dealt with by the Magistrates on the executive side. At present (July, 1958), one Munsiff-Magistrate and four Judicial Magistrates including one Honorary Magistrate with first class powers are functioning at Motihari and one Munsiff-Magistrate and two Judicial Magistrates at Bettiah. Moreover two more Judicial Magistrates have been posted at Motihari, who will take up their assignment very soon. Besides, there is Honorary Magistrate one each at Motihari and Bettiah. The criminal file of the District and Sessions Judge is very heavy at present (1958) inasmuch as 2,378 criminal cases are pending in the Courts of the Munsiff and Judicial Magistrates at Motihari and Bettiah. There are at present (1958) 62 Sessions Cases, 57 Criminal Appeals and 24 Criminal Motions pending in the Courts of Sessions.

District Magistrate and his Office.

The District Magistrate from the very beginning of the present set-up of the administration in the district and from the days of British rule was treated as the very pivot of the set-up. At first a promoted 'writer', later a covenanted hand and then a member of the Indian Civil Service or the Provincial Civil Service, the District Magistrate who was also the Collector was the officer who counted most. There was a time when the District Magistrate not only looked after the general administration, law and order but also the post offices and the hospitals. For a long time he was the Chairman of the District Board and looked after the roads, rural sanitation, health, village education and arboriculture. He was, at one time, the Superintendent of Police as well. With the growing complexity of administration there have been ramifications and special officers for some of the administrative departments. Thus the District Magistrate came to be helped by a gazetted Superintendent of Excise for the administration of Excise affairs, a Superintendent of Police for running the police administration, a District Sub-Registrar for the registration of documents, a Superintendent of Jail for the day-to-day jail administration, a Civil Surgeon for the medical department, etc. He was given a number of gazetted officers who were magistrates of various ranks for manning the steel frame of the administration. They were also Revenue Officers and as such designated as Deputy Collectors. These officers used to be vested with magisterial and revenue powers by publication of notifications in the Official Gazette.

Even with the creation of posts for high-powered officers like the Superintendent of Police or the Subdivisional Officers in charge of subdivisions, to whom considerable devolution of powers was made, the overall administrative supervision and responsibility remained with the District Magistrate. It was the District Magistrate who was the invariable link with the capital and other parts of the State. He was to implement the State policy in every branch in the district. He was accountable to the Government for bad administration. If there was a riot or a wave of lawlessness it was the District Magistrate who had to explain to his higher authorities and to see that normal conditions were restored. If there was an outbreak of cholera causing a heavy toll of human life or an epidemic of foot and mouth disease causing a heavy cattle mortality it was for the District Magistrate to look for the cause and to do the needful. Quelling of communal disturbances combined with distribution of prizes in schools at a remote corner of his district commonly occupied the District Magistrate's programme. This multifarious work of the District Magistrate went on multiplying but the District Magistrate's office known as the Collectorate retained almost the same pattern as had been evolved when the work was much less and there was more of executive work for the District Magistrate and Collector and his staff.

Another duty of the District Magistrate was to hear criminal cases and to decide them. Usually the District Magistrate heard appeals from the second and third class Magistrates and the revenue appeals. He could also try important original cases, both criminal and revenue. When work multiplied the District Magistrate's original criminal or revenue work had to be given up and the criminal appellate work was delegated to a Senior Deputy Magistrate who was vested with appellate powers. But the appellate revenue work of the District Magistrate was sought to be retained by most of the District Magistrates till 1950 or so.

With the development of public opinion the District Boards were made independent bodies but the District Magistrate had still certain responsibilities to see that the Board was functioning properly. Many of the District Officers' departments like Excise, Co-operative, Jails, etc., were made into separate departments at Secretariat level and the local officer at district level for that department was put under his departmental boss as well. Thus an Excise Superintendent had to work under the District Magistrate directly but he was also put under a Deputy Commissioner of Excise at the Division and the Commissioner of Excise at Government headquarters.

After Independence was achieved in 1947, the character of the administration has been undergoing a great change. Briefly, the

State has assumed the role of a Welfare State. More and more development work and multi-purpose projects were introduced. More agrarian reforms came in adding to the work of the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate's functions went on rapidly multiplying. A large number of District Councils for Education, Sanitation, Small Savings Drive, Irrigation, etc., came to be formed. The District Magistrate was invariably the head of all these District Councils. An example may be given. An accent was put on spreading private irrigation work and a large number of minor and medium irrigation projects were taken up within the district and the State Government put a large sum of money for this. The villagers had to bear a share of the expenditure. The people's share either in money or in kind as well as the completed work had to be checked by the District Officer or his Deputy. Particular emphasis was put on the implementation of the recently introduced ameliorative. The result was that the officers had to do a lot of field work. The changed set-up of agrarian laws culminated in the abolition of zamindaris by an Act in 1950. The zamindari abolition was a very big step, revolutionary in character as it did away with an institution over a century old that had dominated almost every aspect of rural life. There had been no Survey and Settlement Operation in Champaran district for several decades. The land records were not up-to-date. There was a certain amount of clash between the big zamindars of this district and the State and this created a problem to the Collector and his officers. All these changes necessitated addition to offices and every district was given an Additional Collector with a large staff. The subordinate staff was recruited hurriedly and mostly lacked revenue experience.

Side by side there was a change going on in the judicial function of the Magistrates. The judiciary has always been presided over by the District and Sessions Judge. Under him there were the Additional or Assistant Sessions Judges. Civil cases were decided by the District Judge, Additional Judges, Sub-Judges and the Munsiffs. But, in a way, it may be said that the Deputy Magistrates were Magistrates first (for maintenance of peace, law and order), Executive Officers second and Judicial courts last. They combined both judicial and executive functions. To give an example, the Subdivisional Officer had to receive police reports, control incidence of crime and he was expected to acquire an intimate knowledge of the trend of crime in his subdivision. He had to cultivate a workable knowledge.

When there was an apprehension of a breach of the peace he was expected to take preventive measures on the report of the police or *suo moto* and when the police gave a charge-sheet or wanted proceedings under any of the preventive sections, the self-same magistrate had to take action and probably keep the case in his own file or transfer to a court subordinate to him in the executive functions. This was, no doubt, an anomalous position and the detachment which is expected of a judicial court was not always present. But it must be said to the very great credit of the magistrates that as a class they discharged their responsibilities satisfactorily. This was probably due partially to the character, integrity and the training of the magistrates and secondly because they were subordinate in their criminal powers to the District and Sessions Judge and ultimately to the High Court.

The move for the separation of judiciary and executive was quite appropriate and reflected the growing consciousness of the public that this anologous position should be ended. The experiment of separating the judiciary and the executive had started in some districts in the forties and at the beginning, some Munsiffs and Sub-Judges were given magisterial powers and cases which particularly involved the executive administration of the district used to be transferred to the Munsiff-Magistrates or Sub-Judge-Magistrates. For some years after 1948 in the same districts there were some Deputy Magistrates trying criminal cases and some Munsiff-Magistrates tried the same type of criminal cases. Later in the late fifties a few Magistrates were diverted fully to the judicial side in some districts. They are now known as the Judicial Magistrates and they are absolutely under the administrative control of the District Judge and the Patna High Court. Champaran district is one of those districts where a complete separation of the judiciary and executive has been done since 1957.

As is well known every district is divided into several units known as the subdivision. As mentioned elsewhere the subdivisions here are Sadar and Bettiah. The Subdivisional Officer is the executive head of the subdivision. His headquarters are within his subdivision. He holds in him the same type of functions and responsibilities as a District Magistrate but under the administrative control of the District Magistrate. The Subdivisional Magistrate is also a Deputy to the Collector in revenue matters. Thus the District Magistrate and Collector is at the administrative head of the district with his Deputies, firstly a number of Joint Magistrates, Assistant Magistrates, Deputy Magistrates and Deputy Collectors at the district headquarters and secondly the Subdivisional Officers and a number of officers at the subdivisions combining the magisterial and revenue work and he had the further assistance of officers in charge of specialised departments like Excise, Registration, Medical and Public Health, etc., at headquarters with their subordinates at the lower level. With the dwindling of the European members of the Indian Civil Service in 1947 by their wholesale retirement by the Government, there was a vacuum in the rank of the top and experienced officers. After Independence the Indian Civil Service was replaced by a service known as the Indian Administrative Service. This service was filled up by promotion from the

Provincial Civil Service, and recruitment from the market by selection and open competitive examinations.

As mentioned before the office of the District Magistrate known as the Collectorate had continued the same type of pattern from almost the beginning of the district administration under the British rule. A detailed study of the district and subdivisional offices which included the recommendations regarding the standard of staffing and the organisation to be adopted for the Collectorate and subdivisional offices was done in 1905 by a Committee known as the Slacke Committee. This Committee was set up to draw a comprehensive scheme for improving the position of the ministerial officers. The pattern that was set up followed the needs at that time. The English Office in the Collectorate was the clearing house of the District Magistrate's administration and every letter went to the English Office and had to be treated in the various departments concerned but under the control of the English Office. Apart from the confidential section there were separate criminal and revenue departments and the Office Superintendent was at the head of the ministerial officers. Each of the departments in the Collectorate like English Office, Establishment, Nazarat, Tauji and Cess, Land Registration, Treasury, etc., was put under a Deputy or a Sub-Deputy Collector or an Assistant Magistrate or a Joint Magistrate who belonged to the Indian Civil Service. The Establishment was technically under a Deputy Collector and under him the head of the ministerial establishment, namely, the Office Superintendent ran this section.

It has to be remembered that practically every Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector at the district headquarters was burdened with criminal cases and other multifarious duties. The Revenue Departments under them did not receive as much attention as their importance indicated. Thus the Nazarat or the Tauji or Cess Section which deals with monetary transactions running to even lakhs of rupees in some months was left to a non-gazetted ministerial officer. The Magistrate in-charge could not devote much time to see to the day-to-day working of his department or to carry out the instructions. He had hardly time to see what he was signing. This sort of lack of attention had its repercussions. The Manuals or Codes for the various departments were compiled decades before and laid down quite a foolproof arrangement involving regular inspections, cross checks and periodical transfers of the ministerial head and the Deputy Collectors incharge. The District Magistrate or the Magistrate incharge did not have much time to make thorough inspections as before. The fresh set of officers were not given an elaborate training as before in the departments.

With the emergency on the wake of the Second Great War various price control measures had to be enforced. Cloth, kerosene oil, sugar, medicines, consumers' goods and various other necessary commodities had to be controlled. Very difficult problems of supply had arisen and had to be tackled at the Government level and the Districts were also called upon to share the burden. The Deputy Magistrates had to take up the role of a trader, a shop-keeper, and a godown superintendent. They did not have the training for all these duties. Overnight a Sub-Deputy Magistrate with a small pay of Rs. 200 per month found himself changed into a Price Control Officer or a District Supply Officer controlling transactions of lakhs of rupees. The original strength of the ministerial officers could not cope with the great pressure of work and quickly large temporary recruitments had to be made. The temporary recruits knew very well that their establishments might not last for a long time. They had very big temptations before them and it should be no wonder if a certain degree of corruption and demoralisation of the administrative machinery had crept in. It was extremely difficult for the District Magistrate at the head, to control the sudden huge increase of work and the incidence of a large number of purely temporary departments and temporary personnel. The emergency took away a number of senior officers in the Civil and Police Services to special departments. But it could be said with emphasis that the service personnel at the top as a class had rallied wonderfully and worked very hard to meet the exigency of the situation. It was also a remarkable achievement that the Services continued to give their very best under the new set up of Government with the advent of the popular Ministry in 1947.

Many of the temporary departments that had been created because of circumstances brought in by the Second Great War closed down at the proper time. Some of them like Supply Department had to be continued in some shape or other and has received some fillips occasionally. New problems were created with partition of the country and the creation of Pakistan. A number of Muslims from Champaran district had migrated to Pakistan. There was a panic among both the communities for some months following the communal outburst in 1946. This tension received its peak after the partition which encouraged the Muslims to migrate. A very large number of Hindus from East Pakistan came over to India and had to fan themselves out in the different districts. This district also had received thousands of displaced persons rehabilitated at different places. The relief and rehabilitation of the displaced persons became a major administrative problem for some time and has continued till now as an important problem.

As has been mentioned before development work has been given a great emphasis in the present set-up of administration of the Welfare State. The evils of casteism are sought to be removed both by statute and by propaganda. Laws have been made removing the disqualification of the Harijans from entering temples. Wide facilities have been given to the backward communities and scheduled castes for education. A large number of welfare schemes have been taken up for the backward communities and scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes. National Extension Service Blocks and Community Development Projects have been started in different parts of the district. The idea is to carry out intensive co-ordinated rural development of each area with the active association and participation of the people.

The administrative set-up has had to change very considerably because of the abolition of zamindari. There is no intermediary link now between the State and the cultivators. All these changes at the district level were to be controlled from the Collectorate, the office of the District Officer with its own old pattern. It was felt that this pattern must go. For this reason the State Government deputed in 1957 a Senior Officer, Mr. B. D. Pandey, to study the problems of the reorganisation of districts and subdivisional offices.

Mr. B. D. Pande, I.C.S., took into account the existing circumstances which covered the separation of the judiciary and the executive, the development programmes and the consequent changes towards a welfare administration and the staff that had been recruited on *ad hoc* basis, the lack of method of working, supervision or inspection. It was felt that the Collectorate was not organised into properly defined unit with a proper structure which was essential for efficient office organisation. Ill-assorted arrangement at the top was bound to affect the ramifications and the actual working of the schemes.

The number of clerical staff had gone up more than four times as compared with the number of clerical staff in 1904. In some districts the number of ministerial staff had gone up to near about 600 persons. If to this were added the number of field staff that were working under the Collectorate, namely, Karamcharis, Village Level Workers, Gram Sewaks, Inspectorates, etc., it was found that the non-gazetted establishment under some of the Collectorates would amount to as large as 2,000. This huge array of assistants itself called for administrative and organisational problem of its own.

Most of the correspondence was carried out in the main office of the Collectorate known as the English Office which was itself a misnomer. The English Office formerly had two main divisions—judicial and revenue. While a number of revenue subjects were still dealt with, in the English Office, there was a fairly big separate revenue establishment, consequent on the abolition of zamindari. Correspondence was also carried on in a large number of smaller offices. This led to duplication of files and papers, lack of supervision, etc. Accordingly the Collectorate was recommended to be divided into seven principal sections as follows :—

(1) Confidential—This was to be directly under the Collector.
(2) General Office—This was to replace the English Office.

(3) Revenue Office—This was to correspond to the present Revenue Office set up on the abolition of zamindaris and include all allied subjects.
(4) Development Office.
(5) Establishment Office.
(6) Legal Section.
(7) Treasury and Accounts.

The proposed distribution of subjects was as below :—

Section I—Confidential.

Section II—General.—(1) Law and Order; (2) Agrarian Disputes; (3) Maintenance of Public Order Act; (4) Collective Fines; (5) Police and Home Guards; (6) Requisitioning and derequisitioning of property; (7) Allotment of houses; (8) Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board; (9) Elections; (10) Census; (11) Cinemas and Dramatic Performances; (12) Licenses (Arms, Explosives, etc.); (13) Press, including examination of newspaper cuttings; (14) Public Relations; (15) Relief and Rehabilitation of displaced persons from Pakistan; (16) Evacuee Property Act; (17) Passports and Visas; (18) Domicile Certificate; (19) Political Sufferers; (20) Jails; (21) Supply and Price Control; (22) Anti-Corruption; (23) Assembly, Council and Parliament Questions; (24) Local Bodies, that is, Municipalities, District Boards, Notified Area Committees and other Union Committees; (25) Library; (26) Forms and Stationery; (27) Labour, including Minimum Wages Act, Workmen's Compensation, etc.

Section III—Revenue.—(1) Land Reforms; (2) Tenancy Act; (3) Rent and Cess; (4) Khas Mahal; (5) Rent Commutation; (6) Chaukidari; (7) Settlement; (8) Balbandhi; (9) Malkhana; (10) Registration; (11) Chakrana; (12) Embankment; (13) Excise and Opium; (14) Kanungo Establishment; (15) Taxation Measures; (16) Record Room; (17) Copying Department; (18) Certificate; (19) Nazarat; (20) Circuit House; (21) Land Acquisition; (22) Ferries; (23) Mining; (24) Treasure Trove; (25) Stamps; (26) Crop and Weather Reports; (27) Flood and Scarcity.

Section IV—Development.—(1) Five-Year Plan and Co-ordination; (2) District Development Committee; (3) District Planning Committee; (4) District Education Committee; (5) Community Project and National Extension Service; (6) Local Development Works Programme; (7) Irrigation (major, medium and minor); (8) Reclamation of Waste Land; (9) Welfare of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes; (10) Gram Panchayats; (11) Vested Zamindari improvement works; (12) Welfare activities of other departments including Grow More Food; (13) Statistics; (14) Forests; (15) Loans, including Agriculturists Loans, Land Improvement Loans, Loans under the State Aid to Industries Act, etc.; (16) National Savings Scheme; (17) Works Staff in the Districts.

Section V—Establishment.—(1) Personal cases—maintenance of service books, character rolls, leave accounts, etc., of personnel employed under the Collector; (2) Appointments, postings and transfers; (3) Leave; (4) Departmental Proceedings; (5) Provident Fund and Gratuity; (6) Pensions; (7) Security; (8) Bill and Budget Works of the Collectorate.

Section VI—Legal Section.—(1) Revenue and Judicial Munshikhana; (2) Civil Suits; (3) Pauper Suits; (4) Criminal Motions; (5) Inspection of Trial Registers; (6) Appeals; (7) Correspondence with the Legal Remembrancer; (8) High Court; (9) Release of Prisoners; (10) Pleaders, Mukhtars and Revenue Agents; (11) Probate; (12) Wakf Estates—Religious Endowments; (13) Payment of Pleader's bills; (14) Judicial Accounts; (15) Criminal Fines; (16) Law Agents and Law Clerks; (17) Other Criminal, Civil or Revenue Appeals or Motions, and matters connected therewith; (18) Court Malkhana.

Section VII—Treasury and Accounts.—(1) Treasury and Accounts; (2) Sale of Stamps.

Mr. Pande made a detailed recommendation for the offices indicating the scales of pay under the different heads. He had further recommended for the removal of the artificial distinction between Class A and Class B District. At the time of the Slacke Committee's Report a distinction was made between the districts mainly on the basis of the number of assistants employed under a Collectorate. Where the number of clerks was below 100 the district was placed in a lower category in respect of the pay of the supervisory staff. The number of clerks in every district was well above 100 when Mr. Pande made his enquiry and he felt that the ministerial officers employed in the different districts should have equal opportunity of promotion to a higher post. Therefore, he recommended that the distinction between the different districts in matter of salaries to be drawn by persons doing the same kind of jobs should be abolished.

There was a certain amount of invidious distinction between a Sadar subdivision and a mofussil subdivision. The recommendation was that the Sadar Subdivisional Office should be organised more or less on the lines of mofussil subdivisions. The Sadar Subdivisional Officer was to have the following departments :—

> General Office; Elections; Development; Confidential; Loans and Relief; National Extension Service and Gram Panchayats; Supply and Price Control; Minor irrigation; Public Relations; Welfare; Chaukidari; Nazarat; Certificate; Bihar Tenancy Act cases; Library; Land Reforms—Landlord's Fee—Revenue Munshikhana; Arms; and Cinema and other licenses.

According to Mr. Pande the Collectorate should also retain Probate, Civil Suits, Malikana, Mines, Revenue Appeals, Settlement, Embankment, Balabandi, and Land Acquisition Sections. Another important change that had to be taken cognisance of was that with the abolition of *zamindari* and the vesting of the *zamindari* into the State, the Khasmahal Department of a district had lost its separate entity. The Khasmahal was, therefore, to be completely merged with the Land Reforms Department. The Landlord's Fee Department of the Collectorate had to be abolished as with the abolition of the *zamindari,* no money-orders had to be sent or acknowledged. It was recommended that arrangements should be made with the District Registration Office or the Sub-Registrar to deposit the Landlord's Fee direct into the Treasury, and send notices to the Circle Officers or the Anchal Adhikaris concerned.

Mr. Pande went into some detail as to the necessary augmentation of certain departments like Nazarat, Certificate, Record Room, etc. He considered that since the Anchal Adhikari was also the Block Development Officer, the certificate powers should not be vested in him and the procedure of getting certificates executed through the Subdivisional Officer should continue. It may be noted here that the work in connection with certificates has been transferred to the Anchal Officers in the other Raiyatwari States of Bombay, Madras, Uttar Pradesh, etc.

Mr. Pande had also given elaborate suggestions for the working of the Development Office, Welfare Department, Gram Panchayats, Loans Department, Establishment Office, Legal Office, Inspections, etc. He had recommended that questionnaires to assist in the inspection as in the case of some of the older manuals should be prescribed for the new branches also like those of development, revenue, etc. They will be of valuable guidance to junior officers.

He also felt that there should be adequate delegations of powers to officers at all levels, namely, Anchal Adhikaris, Subdivisional Officers, Collectors, etc. He had also indicated the necessity of a regular training of the newly recruited assistants and that the training should be closely integrated with practical training in the office itself.

The Chief Secretary in his no. OM/R-302/56—10443, dated the 20th December, 1957, had approved of the suggestions and informed the District Officers by name that the arrangements should be made forthwith to introduce the Reorganisation Scheme in the districts and subdivisions from the 2nd January, 1958. He reiterated that the Collectorate should be divided into seven principal sections as recommended by Mr. Pande. He further expected that the Sadar Subdivisional Officers should function separately from the Collectorate like Mofussil Subdivisional Officers with the departments as recommended by Mr. Pande and the Collectorate should, however, retain the nine subjects mentioned before as per Mr. Pande's recommendations. There was a further reiteration of Mr. Pande's scheme by Mr. M. S. Rao, I.C.S., Chief Secretary in his letter no. R2-302/56-CSR., dated the 9th July, 1958. In this letter the existing distinction between A and B Class districts in respect of pay-scale for various categories of the posts was abolished. Orders were passed for the merging of the Khasmahal Office in the General Land Reforms Office, the abolition of Landlord's Fee Department and other recommendations regarding Nazarat, Certificate, Establishment, Legal Section, etc.

At Motihari, the headquarters of the district of Champaran, the District Magistrate and Collector remains in charge of the whole district and is assisted by a staff of Deputy Magistrates and Collectors including the Subdivisional Officer, Sadar, Sub-Deputy Collectors and also an Excise Superintendent with his staff. The sanctioned staff is five Deputy Collectors and two Sub-Deputy Collectors with either second or third class powers. With the increased work, one extra Deputy Magistrate and a few probationary Deputy Collectors and Sub-Deputy Collectors, are generally posted at Motihari. To assist the Collector in revenue matters, one Additional Collector, one Additional Subdivisional Officer, and two Sub-Deputy Collectors—Circle Officers at Sadar and two at Bettiah—have been posted. A Gram Panchayat Officer to organise the Gram Panchayats in the district is also posted at Motihari.

The Subdivisional Officer at Bettiah had been assisted by an experienced Sub-Deputy Collector for many years, but with the increase of work in recent years one Deputy Collector and two more Sub-Deputy Collectors are usually posted there. He is also assisted by a Munsiff-Magistrate. Certificate work of Bettiah subdivision which was done formerly at Motihari is now done at Bettiah.

Since the separation of the Irrigation and Roads and Buildings Branches of the Public Works Department, Executive Engineer of the Irrigation Branch has been posted at Motihari. With the help of Subdivisional Officers and their staff at Ramnagar, Manihari and Dhaka, he supervises the Champaran Embankment at Tribeni, Dhaka and Teur canals. Since 1923, the collection of the revenue of these canals has been transferred to the Deputy Collector, Son Circle at Arrah.

POLICE.

The district police administration is under the Superintendent of Police, who is under the administrative control of the District Magistrate, and the Deputy Inspector-General of Police for Tirhut Division with headquarters at Muzaffarpur. The departmental head is the Inspector-General of Police with headquarters at Patna. The Superintendent of Police, with his headquarters at Motihari has primarily to maintain law and order.

For efficient control, supervision and protection by the police, the district with its two subdivisions, has been divided into four police circles. There are altogether 26 police-stations and 10 police outposts in the district.

The police organisation of the district in 1958 consisted of 1 Superintendent of Police, 2 Deputy Superintendents of Police, 5 Inspectors, 44 Sub-Inspectors, 56 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 21 Havildars and 615 Constables. This strength is increased or decreased according to the exigencies of time. A detailed description of the working of the police organisation and its strength has been given in the chapter on 'Law, Order and Justice'.

EXCISE.

The Excise administration of the district is controlled by the District Magistrate, who is assisted by a Superintendent of Excise, with headquarters at Motihari. The Superintendent of Excise is also under the administrative control of the Deputy Commissioner, Excise, North Bihar Range, with headquarters at Muzaffarpur. The administrative head of the department is the Excise Commissioner with headquarters at Patna. For administrative convenience, the district has been divided into some circles, with one Excise Sub-Inspector in each of them.

The revenue from Excise decreased from Rs. 2,16,496 in 1892-93 to Rs. 2,13,300 in 1900-01. Since that year up to the year 1929-30, there has, on the whole, been steady increase in the receipts. In 1904-05 it amounted to Rs. 2,82,835. In 1905-06, there was a further increase to Rs. 3,08,187. In 1910-11, the total revenue was Rs. 4,71,194. In the next ten years the revenue did not increase materially varying from Rs. 5,12,932 in 1911-12 to Rs. 3,50,878 in 1914-15. In 1921-22, there was a fall from Rs. 5,12,339 in the previous year to Rs. 4,34,362 which may be attributed to the non-co-operation campaign of the period against the intoxicants. The revenue in the next year and throughout the subsequent years gradually increased till 1929-30, when it was Rs. 5,95,767. In 1930-31, there was a big drop to Rs. 3,88,323 owing to the civil disobedience movement. In the year 1931-32, the revenue showed a further fall of Rs. 71,201 due to the effect of the movement.

The revenue again showed a big jump to Rs. 9,87,722 in the year 1943-44, from Rs. 5,86,209 in the previous year due to special increase under the head 'duty' on country spirit and *ganja* and toddy tree-tax. The rates of duty on country spirit and *ganja,* and toddy tree-tax were enhanced in 1943-44. After 1943-44, the excise revenue went on increasing from year to year till it was Rs. 25,64,829 in the auction year 1949-50. The total revenue in the year 1950-51 when sliding scale system of settlement was introduced was Rs. 25,64,721. It was distributed under the main heads as country spirit Rs. 15,26,149, *ganja* Rs. 2,13,658, opium Rs. 26,328, toddy Rs. 76,754 and from other sources Rs. 31,012. The current position of the excise revenue is given in the statement below :—

Year.	Amount.	
	Rs.	
1953-54	20,57,524	These amounts exclude the income accrued from the power alcohol.
1954-55	19,11,833	
1955-56	17,30,679	

A special staff consisting of 2 Sub-Inspectors, 10 Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 29 Peons is posted at strategic places like Narkatiaganj, Raxaul, Sikta, Adapur, Sugauli, all near the border, to check smuggling of excise articles from Nepal. No excise shops are located within two miles neutral zone of Nepal territory.

A more detailed description of the Excise revenue from different items like that of *ganja, bhang, tari,* country spirit, etc., is given below :—

Statement showing income of the State Government from Excise.

Year.	Country spirit.	*Ganja.*	*Bhang.*	Opium.	*Tari.*	Foreign liquor.	De-natured spirit.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51	15,26,118	2,13,658	915	26,328	7,67,610	4,377	3,279	22,437	25,64,722
1951-52	14,68,746	1,51,774	974	17,794	8,07,870	5,816	3,471	15,562	24,72,007
1952-53	12,78,335	76,767	762	13,840	7,98,510	8,792	7,361	15,432	21,99,799
1953-54	11,65,254	68,989	891	11,157	7,82,483	7,416	7,102	14,232	20,57,524
1954-55	10,30,531	91,099	882	9,073	7,54,399	5,741	8,818	11,290	19,11,833
1955-56	10,55,363	69,574	788	8,609	7,36,279	7,718	7,785	8,832	18,95,948
1956-57	11,20,369	76,885	1,092	8,788	7,31,384	8,338	8,087	9,437	19,64,380
1957-58	10,84,662	72,693	509	5,967	7,36,065	8,487	8,222	8,206	19,24,811
1958-59	9,27,447	34,626	472	2,294	6,14,952	8,480	7,412	7,947	16,03,630

The statement above shows a diminishing revenue year by year. The revenue from country spirit, a main item in the whole list, dwindles quite considerably; Rs. 15,26,118 in the year 1950-51 comes to Rs. 9,27,447 in the year 1958-59. This may be due to the deteriorating economic condition of the public in general. The receipts from *ganja, bhang* and opium also, are seen falling down, which are resultant of certain measures of the Government to decrease the consumption of these things. The supply of *ganja* and *bhang* has been rationed so as to make available less and lesser quantities of them available for the public. The supply of opium for oral consumptions has been totally stopped from this year (1959).

Revenue from *tari* does not decrease in proportion to other items. It is the cheapest intoxicant and seems to be the poor man's beer. In some years in between 1951-52 and 1958-59, the revenue from *tari* is seen going up, which indicates that more men are taking to it.

REGISTRATION.

At the district headquarters the District Sub-Registrar deals with the statutory registration of the documents presented, while the District Magistrate who is *ex-officio* District Registrar, exercises a general supervision over the work of the Sub-Registrars.

Formerly there were six Registration Offices in this district, viz., Motihari, Bettiah, Kessariya, Dhaka, Shikarpur and Chauradano. One more experimental office at Bagaha was opened in the year 1930. This office at Bagaha was made permanent in April, 1940. The fluctuations in the number of registration from 1935 to 1938, as compared to those of past years were rather normal. In 1939 the total number of registration was 5,54,399 with receipts of Rs. 1,08,776 whereas in 1940, the total number of registration reached 54,472 fetching an income of Rs. 1,24,421 in revenue. In 1943, there was an abnormal increase in number of registration from 62,828 to 93,771 and receipts from Rs. 1,31,746 to Rs. 2,57,366. This was mainly due to the abnormal rise in the price of lands as well as redemption of previous long outstanding debts effected by mortgage deeds. By 1944, due to satisfaction of the old debts, the number of registrations came down to 72,322, but the receipts increased to Rs. 2,66,725, owing to increase in the rate of selling prices of land. In the year 1945, due to economic condition, the number further fell to 63,177 and receipts were Rs. 2,62,396. The year 1947 showed an appreciable increase both in the number of registrations and receipts, which came to Rs. 78,106 and Rs. 3,48,335, respectively, owing to the prevalent high rates of land. In 1948, the number of registration again fell to 58,669 and receipts to Rs. 3,05,588 owing to imposition of restrictions on transfer of Muslim properties. The number of registrations again during the year 1949 came down to 58,566 but the revenue, instead of decreasing, shot up to Rs. 4,43,647 which was due to enhancement of the scale of registration fees.

Since 1949, the number of registrations and receipts thereof to the Government shows a steady trend rather slightly diminishing one, with a little or even negligible variation. The following statements will give the idea as to what was the position since the year 1951 onwards :—

Statement I showing total (compulsory and optional) registrations affecting immovable property.

Year.		Number.	Aggregate value in rupees.	Fees in rupees.
1951	..	87,946	4,25,57,596	5,41,672
1953	..	72,672	3,44,33,660	4,24,959
1954	..	67,538	3,19,69,523	3,91,110
1955	..	55,419	2,44,41,621	3,08,271

Statement II showing districtwise total (compulsory and optional) registrations affecting movable property.

Year.		Number.	Aggregate value in rupees.	Fees in rupees.
1951	..	194	1,00,518	785
1953	..	234	72,462	842
1954	..	426	1,28,119	1,369
1955	..	1,190	6,40,524	3,734

The two statements above show that the number of registrations and receipts thereof to the Government came down quite distinctly after the year 1951. A few years before 1951, they had a remarkable upward trend, the reasons of which have already been explained. But afterwards, the continued drought and at the same time flood havocs in the district for two to three years, told upon the economic condition of the public, which ultimately expressed itself also in the decreasing number of registrations and revenue thereof to the Government.

STAMPS.

·The revenue from the stamps, has an important place in the receipts items of the State Government exchequer. There has been an overall rise, with year to year irregular movements in the figures of receipts from stamp duty in the recent years as compared to the figures of thirties or even forties which point to the increasing purchase and sales of properties and also to the mounting litigation among the public. The following table shows the receipts from stamps :—

Statement giving amounts accrued from the sale of stamps.

Year.	Non-judicial.	Judicial.
1932-33	1,07,247	2,42,877
1933-34	87,818	2,81,273
1934-35	1,05,722	3,00,964
1935-36	1,16,879	3,13,475
1936-37	1,25,613	2,65,954
1937-38	1,36,727	2,54,410
1938-39	1,75,384	3,07,585
1939-40	1,83,347	2,88,117
1940-41	2,15,131	2,98,515
1949-50	7,93,660	4,18,441
1951-52	13,80,135	3,54,774
1952-53	8,75,128	4,60,557
1954-55	7,21,141	4,46,366
1955-56	6,43,444	4,27,899

In the forties of this century and after, there is apparently a considerable increase in the stamp revenue figures with irregular variations year to year. This year to year variation is due to so many reasons, e.g., people's impatience to continue in debts, occasional needs like marriage, *sradhs,* etc. On both the judicial and non-judicial heads, however, there is an overall increase on 1940-41 figures as shown in the statement above, which are also due to the following reasons :—

(*i*) Passing of the Bihar Stamp Act VI of 1937, by which the duty was increased by almost 50 per cent.

(*ii*) Passing of the Bihar Stamp Amendment Act of 1943, levying a surcharge at the rate of 25 per cent on the stamp duty.

(*iii*) Passing of the Bihar S. C. Amendment Act XXV of 1948 by which the surcharge was increased by 12½ per cent.

(*iv*) Establishment of the judgeship in the district in June, 1945.

COMMERCIAL TAXES DEPARTMENT.

The department of Commercial Taxes is at present administering six different kinds of fiscal units, viz., (*i*) The Bihar Agricultural

Income Tax Act, (*ii*) The Bihar Sales Tax Act, (*iii*) The Bihar Entertainment Tax Act, (*iv*) The Bihar Electricity Duty Act, (*v*) The Bihar Motor Spirit (Taxation of Sales) Act, and (*vi*) The Bihar Passengers and Goods Transport Tax Act.

The department actually started with the administration of the Bihar Agricultural Income Tax Act, 1938 and the Bihar Sales Tax Act, 1944, which came into effect from the first day of October, 1944. The administration under the other taxation measures was devolved on this department subsequently, i.e., the Bihar Entertainment Tax Act, from the first day of April, 1948, the Bihar Electricity Duty Act, from the first day of October, 1948, the Bihar Motor Spirit (Taxation on Sales) Act from the first day of April, 1949 and the Bihar Passengers and Goods Transport Tax Act from the first day of April, 1950 respectively.

In accordance to the order of the Government every revenue district formed the administrative unit known as a 'circle' to be under a Sales Tax-*cum*-Agricultural Income Tax Officer. This designation was subsequently changed to the Superintendent of Commercial Taxes.

The Circle of Champaran with its headquarters at Motihari was accordingly established on the first day of May, 1944. Previous to this date the affairs of this district relating to the administration of the Bihar Agricultural Income Tax Act, 1938, were managed by the Muzaffarpur Circle.

Apart from the Superintendent of the Commercial Taxes there are two Inspectors in the Circle. This strength, however, had to be increased from time to time to keep pace with its increased responsibilities. The present strength consists of three gazetted officers (the Superintendent of Commercial Taxes and two Assistant Superintendents), four Inspectors and fifteen Ministerial Officers.

The collection of revenue from the different taxation measures is as follows :—

Agricultural Income-Tax.

Year.	Amount in rupees.
1944-45	3,87,090
1945-46	4,30,332
1946-47	4,30,342
1947-48	3,63,057
1948-49	4,43,528
1949-50	9,44,238

Year.	Amount in rupees.
1950-51	19,36,818
1951-52	16,53,949
1952-53	12,64,975
1953-54	13,17,434
1954-55	8,51,595
1955-56	1,55,757
1956-57	1,54,183
1957-58	1,85,599
1958-59	3,29,031
Sales Tax.	
1944-45	54,295
1945-46	2,82,945
1946-47	3,29,755
1947-48	4,27,457
1948-49	9,45,938
1949-50	17,11,238
1950-51	13,96,817
1951-52	12,33,681
1952-53	10,54,223
1953-54	11,01,723
1954-55	10,17,839
1955-56	9,53,975
1956-57	8,92,087
1957-58	11,18,634
1958-59	9,49,585
Entertainment Tax.	
1948-49	43,753
1949-50	1,03,416
1950-51	1,09,736
1951-52	70,377
1952-53	76,330
1953-54	82,401
1954-55	74,443

Year.	Amount in rupees.
1955-56	85,369
1956-57	87,276
1957-58	99,487
1958-59	1,12,512
Electricity Duty.	
1949-50	13,973
1950-51	14,472
1951-52	11,131
1952-53	10,263
1953-54	27,862
1954-55	29,654
1955-56	36,552
1956-57	49,032
1957-58	74,129
1958-59	69,746
Motor Spirit Sales Tax.	
1949-50	42,870
1950-51	56,641
1951-52	81,611
1952-53	74,662
1953-54	86,799
1954-55	90,978
1955-56	79,974
1956-57	1,30,314
1957-58	1,54,171
1958-59	1,69,852
Transport Tax.	
1950-51	12,361
1951-52	13,632
1952-53	10,091
1953-54	10,416
1954-55	10,714
1955-56	17,206
1956-57	19,925
1957-58	29,455
1958-59	52,503

Besides all above, the Central Sales Tax is being collected from 1957-58 onwards, whose receipts amounted to Rs. 2,32,242 in the year 1957-58 and Rs. 45,000 in 1958-59.

It will be seen that the revenue from Motor Spirit Tax, Passengers and Goods Transport Tax, Electricity Duty, and Entertainment Tax, is increasing, whereas those from Agricultural Income-tax and Sales Tax are decreasing. But the proportion of these two decreasing taxes are much higher in the whole tax structure, the revenue as a whole had shown a downward trend which may be partly assigned to the economic depression caused by the continuous flood or drought or both, for more years past in the fifties and partly due to the enactment of Land Reforms Act. Many big cultivators had distributed their lands among the members of their families which automatically caused great fall in the number of big farmers assessable to Agricultural Income-tax. The cause of decrease in the sales tax was mainly due to the exemption of tax on goods despatched to other States in India and due to the depression in the trade.

DISTRICT ELECTION OFFICE.

The District Magistrate is the District Election Officer in the district and for the day to day work, he is assisted by a Deputy Collector. The Subdivisional Officers are in direct charge of the election in their respective subdivisions and work under the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate is himself the Electoral Registration Officer and Returning Officer. The printing and arrangement of electoral rolls, are done in the District Election Office.

The electoral rolls based on the adult franchise have to be revised every five years before the general election.

CENTRAL EXCISE.

The Central Excise Department is a Central Government Department headed by the Superintendent of Central Excise with his headquarters at Motihari. He is under the Collector of Central Excise, with headquarters at Patna. The duties on sugar, cloth, tobacco, power alcohol, and steel are Central revenue and are collected by the employees of Central Government. In the district of Champaran, the duties on sugar are the most important item of receipts. Sugar is manufactured in nine sugar factories in the Motihari Circle.

The tobacco grown in this district is of inferior quality and as such does not find market outside this circle. Locally grown, *hookah* tobacco is manufactured into *'pakwa'* by the *hookah* tobacco manufacturers after payment of duty by mixing molasses, and other ingredients.

Apart from the Superintendent of the Motihari Circle there are nine Inspectors employed one in the each sugar factory of Champaran, five in the tobacco ranges, viz., at Raxaul, Bettiah, Kessariya, Madhuban and Motihari and one on the border of Nepal.

The receipts and the expenditure of the Central Excise from 1951-52 onwards are given below :—

Year.	Expenditure.	Receipts.		
		Tobacco.	Sugar.	Vegetable non-essential oil.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1951-52	1,24,904	1,07,930	58,59,734	..
1952-53	1,38,128	1,83,724	55,71,190	..
1953-54	1,16,544	2,52,415	1,02,02,169	..
1954-55	1,28,471	2,09,200	35,32,561	..
1955-56	1,38,604	2,68,622	1,07,55,845	..
1956-57	1,48,012	3,21,412	1,13,03,995	1,262
1957-58	1,49,563	3,93,486	2,40,57,683	466
1958-59	1,46,124	5,02,441	3,07,11,027	1,152

Thus it is apparent from the above statistics that on the whole there had been phenomenal increase in the receipts of the Central Excise, especially from the duty on sugar and its revenue in course of seven years had increased from Rs. 58,59,734 (1951-52) to Rs. 3,07,11,027 or more than 500 per cent in 1958-59. There had been great fall in 1954-55 which was due to low yield of sugarcane owing to drought and unfavourable climate. The receipts from tobacco had throughout shown an upward trend.

CHAPTER X.

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

History of Land Revenue.

The earliest records of land revenue before the British stepped into the district are still vague and unexplored. Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore, Settlement Officer, North Bihar, in the *Survey and Settlement Operations Report* (1892—1899) *of Champaran* published in 1900 has for the first time given the detailed history of the land revenue administration, especially, after the occupation of the district by the British. L. S. S. O'Malley in the Preface of the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* published in 1907 had acknowledged the assistance of Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore and followed his foot-steps in compiling the land revenue administration chapter. Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore had made an attempt to trace the history of land revenue administration since the assessment made by Raja Todar Mall.

During the reign of Akbar, *Sarkar* Champaran was a part of Subah Bihar.* "Champaran in the time of Akbar", mentions Mr. C. J. Stevenson-Moore in his final report of *Survey and Settlement Operations,* 1892—1899 published in 1900 "as now, consisted of the three *parganas,* Semraon, Mehsi and Majhawa". *Parganas* Mehsi and Semraon are almost co-extensive with thanas Madhuban and Dhaka, respectively, and cover a long narrow strip of land, running from the confines of Nepal on the north to the borders of Tirhut on the south, and separated from the latter on the east by the Baghmati and from the neighbouring *pargana* of Majhawa on the west by the Tiar and Burhi Gandak rivers. These two *parganas* account for an area of only two rather small thanas, and the rest of the district is contained in the immense *pargana* of Majhawa; its northern and north-western boundaries march with Nepal and the Gandak separates it from Butawal and from the districts of Gorakhpur and Saran on the south-west and south. This enormous *pargana* almost comprises the thanas of Adapur, Motihari, Kessariya, Govindganj and Bettiah with small portions of Bagaha and Shikarpur.

These three *parganas* are divided into 32 *tappas* or minor divisions, of which a list is given below :—

Majhawa Pargana.—Bahas, Balthar, Balua Gondauli, Belwa, Bhabta, Chanki, Chigwan Batsara, Chigwan Nisf, Daulata, Deoraj, Duho Suho, Gopala, Harnatanr, Jafarabad, Jamhauli, Khada, Madhwal, Mando, Manpur Chaudand, Olaha, Patjirwa, Rajpur Sihoria, Ramgir, Sakhwa, Sathi, Sonwal, Sugaon.

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* It is mentioned in the *Ain-i-Akbari* that Subah Bihar consisted of six *Sarkars,* viz., Rohtas, Hajipur, Bahar, Tirhut, Saran and Champaran.

Mehsi Pargana.—Harihara, Haveli, Salempur Hadiabad, Sirauna.

Simraon Pargana.—Nonaur.

The results of the great land revenue assessment made by Raja Todar Mall during Akbar's reign, were condensed by the Finance Minister and scholar, Abul Fazl, in the statistical account which forms a portion of the *Ain-i-Akbari* (the third book of Blochman's translation). From this it is seen that Champaran had already become of sufficient importance to be recognised as a distinct revenue unit and separate statistics for it were compiled. It had also been brought into touch with military system of the empire, for according to Abul Fazl, it was responsible for the supply and maintenance of 700 horses and 30,000 infantry.

In the settlement made by Todar Mall in the time of the Emperor Akbar, 99,424 acres or 148 square miles* are said to have been assessed to a revenue of Rs. 1,37,835; but it seems uncertain that this area included even all the cultivated land of the district, and it is probable that isolated stretches of cultivation escaped assessment. However, this may be, it is noticeable that the assessment was based on the high incidence of Rs. 1-6-0 per acre. About a century later the revenue was raised to Rs. 2,10,151 by an assessment made in 1685 in the reign of Aurangzeb; but in 1750 it was reduced by nearly Rs. 10,000 by Ali Vardi Khan. It is difficult to ascertain what the actually assessed revenue of the district was when the British took it over in 1765, but it appears to have stood at about Rs. 2 lakhs.

At this time *Sirkar* Champaran was in the possession of the Bettiah Raj family, the head of which Raja Jugal Keshwar Singh, fell into arrears of revenue and defied the authority of the British Government. The estate was thereon seized and brought under the direct management of the East India Company, and annual settlements were made until it was only Rs. 1,39,389 in 1773, i.e., very little more than the amount assessed by Todar Mall two centuries before. This state of affairs was due not only to the troubles with the Bettiah Raj but also to the famine of 1770. According to Hamilton's description of Hindostan (1820) *Sarkar* Champaran or Bettiah suffered severely during the great famine of 1770, when almost half the inhabitants are supposed to have perished. Besides this, the *zamindars* of Champaran having for many years been deprived of their lands which were leased to ignorant and rapacious farmers of the revenue, they experienced such oppression that the majority of the population which survived the famine was obliged to abscond, leaving the country almost a desert. Since that melancholy epoch the *zamindars* have been re-established by the decennial settlement, many of the ancient inhabitants have returned, and cultivation has been prosecuted.

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* The figure of 148 square miles has been mentioned in the *Final Report of Survey and Settlement Operations* according to a measurement in vogue. This figure has been established to 155 square miles in the last District Gazetteer

" In order to trace the effect in this district of the land revenue administration from 1765—when the East India Company stood forth as *diwan*—to the present time " mentions the *Survey and Settlement Operation Report,* 1892—1899, by C. J. Stevenson-Moore (1900) " it will be convenient to divide its history into periods ".

" The Muhammadan period being regarded as the first stage, the second stage runs from 1765 to 1790 A. D., that is, from the acquisition of the *diwani* to the decennial settlement. In 1766 Mahomed Raza Khan was entrusted with the revision of the land revenue of Subah Bihar, but he confined himself mainly to adjusting, without altering, the existing assessment. Annual settlements were made until 1772, when, under the control of European supervisors, a quinquennial settlement was attempted. It proved a failure, and in 1786 after annual settlements which also were largely unsuccessful, the Directors tired of these fruitless experiments, expressed a desire for a durable assessment on the basis of actual collections for a term of years ".

" The decennial settlement was the result. It was made with the *zamindars,* farmers being introduced only in case of recusancy. It was concluded in 1790, and was, three years later, with only slight modifications, confirmed in perpetuity. The third period deals with the immediate effects of the settlement after its declaration as permanent.

" It is well-known that the immediate effects of the Regulation of 1793 are popularly recognised as having been—to bestow the status of proprietors on many who were mere rent-receivers; to provide measures for the protection of the *raiyats,* which, though theoretically sound, were practically abortive; and by the sudden introduction of a stringent system of the sale for arrears of revenue to ruin large number of the hereditary land-owners. Mr. MacNeile, in describing in his memorandum the effects of what he terms the ' first unbending fixture ' with which the natives of this country were brought in contact, remarks : ' It is scarcely too much to say that within the ten years that immediately followed the permanent settlement, a complete revolution took place in the constitution and the ownership of the estates which formed the subject of that settlement ". While I shall show hereafter that this description in its application to North Bihar, must be considered as an over-statement of facts, still, in Bengal generally it is probable that the excessive number of defaults endangered the success of the permanent settlement, and this view led to the passing of Regulation VII of 1799, the notorious *Haftam* which accorded to *zamindars* an unrestricted power of distraint and eviction without reference to any court; and, to complete their despotic authority, rendered any tenant unable to prove the truthfulness of a complaint made against his landlord in a court, liable to fine or imprisonment. The effect in reducing in Bengal the number of sales for arrears of revenue was immediate; and when it was seen that the revenue was secured, a revulsion of feeling set in which found expression in Regulation V of 1812 (the *Panjam*), whereby only the property and not the person of the tenant was liable to seizure for default. This Regulation proved unsatisfactory, and the opinion began to grow that efficient administration was impossible without a more active intervention. In consequence, Regulation XII of 1819 was passed for the resuscitation and reorganisation of *patwaris*; but what had now grown into a definite desire to safeguard the cultivator's rights was defeated by the concession to the *zamindars* of a joint control over the *patwaris,* which resulted in the latter, being transformed from protector of the *raiyats* to subservient agents ready to further the illicit practices .of the *zamindars.*

"At the time of permanent settlement the authority, to hereafter scrutinise all rent-free grants, and, if invalid, to assess them, was specially reserved. It was announced in the Proclamation of 1793, that 'the Governor-General in Council will impose such assessment as he may deem equitable on all lands, at present alienated and paying no public revenue, which have been or may prove to be held under illegal or invalid titles'. Revenue-free lands were divided into two classes—*badshahi* and *hukumi*; the former being those that were granted by the Mughal Emperors direct, and the latter, by Government officials. Regulation XXXVII of 1793 dealt with *badshahi* grants, and Regulation XIX of the same year with the others, *badshahi* grants were recognised as valid if the holder could prove his *sanad* and was in possession. *Hukumi* grants, though in their nature invalid, were accepted as valid if dated prior to 1765. All grants of a subsequent date were invalid, but those given between 1765 and 1790 were to be accorded a privileged rate of assessment. By Regulation XIX all *lakhiraj* grants made by *zamindars* after 1790 were invalidated, and *zamindars* were authorised to nullify their own grants. Moreover, the Government ruled, that for any grant of less than 100 *bighas,* it would forego all claims to revenue and leave to the *zamindar* the authority to assess it to rent. No practical steps were taken at the time these Regulations were passed but in 1800 an attempt was made by a Regulation of that year to provide for the preparation of a *parganawar* register, by making local enquiries through *kanungoes,* and also by compelling *lakhirajdars* to register their interests; but this, too, proved to be inoperative, and in 1819 a further attempt at amplification of the law and its effective application resulted in Regulation II of that year, the principal provision of which transferred the power of resumption from civil to revenue courts. It was supplemented by Regulation III of 1828, which appointed an executive agency in the person of a Special Commissioner, to give practical effect to the policy of Government; and it was under his guidance that resumption proceedings were systematically undertaken between the years 1830 to 1845, which resulted in a very material increase in the revenue. Mr. MacNeile, in his memorandum, calculated the total increase, mainly on this account for the whole of Bengal at Rs. 66,21,144, for no less than two-third of which Bihar accounted................. The fourth period is marked by active operations for the resumption of invalid revenue-free grants, and can be said to have extended up to 1845.

"The fifth period is characterised by the execution of the first professional village survey in these provisions, the revenue survey of 1843—1849. Act IX of 1847 was also passed providing for a survey of *diara* lands and the assessment of accretions during this period, and it formed the basis of the *diara* survey of 1865.

"The sixth and the last period runs from 1850 down to the present time (1890), its chief characteristics being a sustained attempt on the part of Government to undo, by practical legislation, the injury to the cultivating classes and to the administration caused by that policy of blind non-interventions which, while not directly emanating from the Permanent Settlement, had grown up round it, which had been so abused by the strong at the expense of the weak, and which had been adjudged as both impracticable and deleterious 30 years before. In Act XI of 1859 the Revenue Sale Law at present in operation was enacted. By Act X of the same year, and Act VIII of 1869, the first conscientious attempt was made to define, by practical legislation, the status and rights of tenants, and the principles on which rents might be enhanced. From 1870 onwards ensued a period of great activity in the land revenue administration. Road cess was introduced. A certificate procedure had been provided by Act VII (B. C.) of 1868. It was recognised that, with so many new duties to perform, the administration could not be effective without a complete record of estates and of proprietary interests in them. Hence the Land Registration Act VII (B. C.) of 1876 was passed. In the same year, the Partition Act VIII of 1876, introduced with the original intention of restricting partitions and simplifying the procedure, became law. In 1872 and 1873 rent disturbances had occurred in Pabna and elsewhere in Bengal. In 1874 the great famine occurred in Bihar, which drew public attention to the depressed condition of the peasantry in that province. Both events impressed on Government the necessity for revising the rent law. The Rent Law Commission was appointed, whose labours culminated in the Bengal Tenancy Act of 1885, and the present settlement and survey operations."

To give an idea of the state of revenue in the *Sarkar* Champaran during the early periods of the British administration will be of interest. The most accurate account available is contained in a letter, dated the 15th June, 1771, from Mr. Golding, the then Supervisor of *Sarkar* Champaran, in which he reported the desolate condition of the country and its falling revenue, and suggested the partial restoration of Jugal Keshwar Singh and the partition of the *Sarkar* between him and Shrikrishan Singh as the proper remedy. He observed as follows "Sarkar Champaran is in a state of desolation and ruin hardly to be credited by one who has not been a witness to it. This assertion will be partly demonstrated by the account of its collections which I enclose for the year" (i.e., (1766).

Progressive account of the collections in *Sarkar* Champaran from the years 1173 to 1177 (inclusive) is given below :—

	Rs.	a.	p.
1173 or 1766	7,50,277	6	3
1174 or 1767	5,52,059	14	9
1175 or 1768	4,72,459	2	9
1176 or 1769	3,93,350	5	3
1177 or 1770	2,79,133	11	9

The next authentic record is a register connected with the name of Nawab Hoshiyar Jang, Subahdar of Bengal which the Collector of Saran writing in 1823 describes "a collection of Kanungoes' *jama wasilbaki* papers for the Fasli year 1180 (i.e., 1773 A. D.) for the parganas then included in the district of Saran". According to this there were then in *Sarkar* Champaran 7 *mahals* 4 *parganas* (including Babra, since transferred to Muzaffarpur), 35 *tappas* comprising 1,802 villages of which 1,154 were *asli* and 648 *dakhili*. They included 228 revenue free villages (158 *asli* and 70 *dakhili*), estimated to yield a *tumari jama* or standard assessment as understood by Todar Mall, to the amount of Rs. 33,974. The remaining villages were charged with a revenue of Rs. 1,75,251 inclusive of *abwabs* or excluding Babra with Rs. 1,39,389.

The following table distributes the amount, *pargana* by *pargana* and compares it with the figures of Todar Mall :—

Pargana.	Revenue of— 1582.	1773.
	Rs.	Rs.
Majhawa	37,373	80,188
Mehsi	87,960	51,858
Simraon	12,502	7,343
Total	1,37,835	1,39,389

Thus the figures indicate that in spite of the lapse of 200 years the revenue of *Sarkar* Champaran remained approximately the same.

Mr. Golding had attributed this state of affair due to mismanagement of Jugal Keshwar Singh and in a letter addressed to the Patna Council on the 17th June, 1772, he had written as follows :—

"Agreeable to your orders of the 18th ultimo, I repaired to *Sarkar* Champaran, and have been chiefly employed in adjusting the business of Jugal Keshwar's zamindari. The country I found in so very ruinous a condition that without timely alteration in the mode of settlement I am confidently of opinion that not half of the present nominal revenue would have been collected in this year. Raja Jugal Keshwar Singh, contrary to expectations which were entertained of him proves to be very unequal to the management of a zamindari, which requires so much attention ".

The quinquennial settlement which followed the settlement of 1773 was made with the farmers. But this also proved a failure. The amount of revenue collected in 1774 was Rs. 1,95,648 as against Rs. 4,72,790 in 1789. Throughout this period, i.e., from 1774 to 1789 the revenue of *Sarkar* Champaran was marked by extraordinary fluctuations. In order to bring steadiness in the land revenue the decennial settlement was made which was afterwards converted into the Permanent Settlement. It appears that the *jama* settled in the decennial settlement or the 99 years' settlement was Rs. 3,98,253-6-9 or excluding Babra *pargana,* which was transferred to Tirhut in 1865, at Rs. 3,51,427-3-9. When this settlement was concluded Champaran was divided into six estates, the largest of which comprised the two parganas of Majhawa and Simraon and was charged with a revenue of over 2 lakhs which the smallest consisted of one village, Harpur Rai assessed at Rs. 300. Majhawa and Simraon were held by Bir Keshwar Singh of Bettiah Raj, Mehsi and Babra with a revenue of Rs. 1,25,350 by the Sheohar Raj family, *tappa* Duho Suho by the founder of Madhuban family and *tappas* Ramgir, Jamhauli and Chigwan by the Ram Nagar Raja.

At the Permanent Settlement concluded in 1793, the decennial settlement, with some slight modifications, was confirmed in perpetuity, the revenue assessed being *pargana*-wise as follows :—

Pargana.	Revenue in rupees.
Mehsi	78,532
Simraon	14,430
Majhawa	2,92,625
Total	3,85,587

A comparative statement of the area and the incidence of revenue compared with that of Todar Mall is given below :—

Pargana.	Area.		Revenue.		Incidence per acre	
	1582.	1790.	1582.	1790.	1582.	1790.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Acres.	Acres.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Mehsi	65,070	1,38,317	87,960	78,532	1 5 0	0 9 0
Simraon ..	8,352	67,795	12,502	14,430	1 7 0	0 3 6
Majhawa ..	26,002	4,60,412	37,372	2,47,773	1 6 0	0 9 0
Total ..	99,424	6,66,524	1,37,834	3,40,735	1 6 0	0 8 0

It is apparent that, while the revenue had trebled itself since 1582, the incidence of revenue per acre fell from Rs. 1-6-0 to annas 8. This means a light assessment on large areas reclaimed since Akbar's time.

RESUMPTION PROCEEDINGS.

In Hoshiyar Jang's register 228 villages with an estimated rental of Rs. 33,974 were noted as being unassessed to the revenue. In 1765 after due investigation it was reported that the extent of the *lakhraj* lands in Champaran was found to be 1,34,211½ bighas in 283 villages. The resumption proceedings were briskly taken in the district between 1834 and 1841 which added up to the tune of Rs. 1,03,540.

PROFESSIONAL SURVEY.

The professional survey was taken between 1843—1849. According to this survey the number of estates was 2,452, area 22,90,481 acres or 3,578.86 square miles, revenue Rs. 5,08,737. The significance of these figures cannot be realised without comparing them with the previous figures of 1582 and 1790.

Area in square miles.			Incidence of revenue per acre.		
1582.	1790.	1845.	1582.	1790.	1845.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
155	1,041	3,578	1 6 0	0 8 0	0 3 6

From the above figures it is apparent that there had been remarkable decrease in the incidence of revenue per acre in 1790 and 1845 while there was a phenomenal increase in the areas.

CADASTRAL SURVEY OF 1892–1899.

The cadastral survey was started in 1892 and came to a close in 1899. Up to May, 1895, the Saran and Champaran operations were carried on together but as the work progressed this was found to be unsuitable and settlement work for Champaran was separated from that of Saran. As in other districts the cadastral survey in Champaran was preceded by a traverse or boundary survey. The area surveyed in traverse was 3,298 square miles while according to the cadastral survey it was 3,244 square miles. The district was divided into 9 revenue thanas, the area of each of the thanas was as follows :—

Thana.	Area in square miles.
Bettiah Subdivision.	
(1) Bagaha	619
(2) Shikarpur	554
(3) Bettiah	547
	1,720
Sadar Subdivision.	
(4) Adapur	224
(5) Dhaka	335
(6) Motihari	290
(7) Govindganj	286
(8) Keshariya	273
(9) Madhuban	122
	1,530

Out of the total area of 20,79,815 acres, 14,47,668 acres or nearabout 70 per cent were cultivated, and 6,32,147 acres or about 30 per cent uncultivated. The total revenue assessed was Rs. 5,15,803.

REVISIONAL SURVEY.

The Revisional Survey was started in 1913 and came to a close in 1919. The total area in acres of the district according to this settlement was 20,77,735 as against 20,79,815 of the last settlement. Out of the total area of it 14,29,859 acres or 69 per cent were cultivated, while 6,47,875 acres or 31 per cent uncultivated. The total revenue assessed was Rs. 5,15,135.

Since J. A. Sweeney's Revisional Survey and Settlement Operations (1913–1919), the report of which was published in 1922, no fresh survey and settlement operations had been conducted in the district. The picture of the land system that emerged from the revisional settlement of 1913—1919 practically remained the same till the Congress Ministry came into power in 1937 out of the elections under Provincial Autonomy of 1935. During this period, however, some ameliorative measures were taken to improve the condition of the tenants. The successful Indigo *Satyagraha* in Champaran led by Mahatma Gandhi as discussed before was a landmark and it ushered in a renaissance among the general peasantry. They became conscious of their rights and obligations *vis-a-vis* to landlords and the tenure-holders. Cultivation of indigo against popular will and *abwabs* were particular targets and with the growing consciousness of the tenant there was a gradual decline of indigo cultivation and payment of the *abwabs*. The *kisans* began to realise that they had a say in the administration. In the late twenties of the present century the *kisan* agitation led by Swami Sahjanand Saraswati and others had produced some ferment among the peasants of Bihar including that of Champaran. These agitations got further momentum due to the launching of salt *Satyagraha* and the Civil Disobedience Movement as the uneconomic condition of the tenancy was always highlighted by the leaders.

An important agrarian reform was done when in 1920 Government took the step to abolish the age-long *kamiauti* system : "The Bihar and Orissa Kamiauti Agreement Act of 1920" was passed according to which the old system of bonded labour was abolished. Before that it was quite common that landlords big or small had *kamias* or labourers tied down to the zamindars or big cultivators. Usually some money was given as loan and the interest was paid in form of labour and this continued from generation to generation.

The low price of agricultural products due to the general depression since 1931 had made the condition of the agriculturists worse. The *kisan* agitation brought in a certain amount of tension between the landlords and the tenants. The landlords refused to show any accommodation to the tenants in payment of rent or in carrying out improvements to the lands. There was a great agitation for the reduction of rents in consideration of the low price level of the produce of the land and other factors. A series of Statutory Acts were passed by the Government to ameliorate the condition of the tenants. Provision was made under section 112 of the Bihar Tenancy Amendment Act for a general reduction of the rents. The new provision of the Bihar Tenancy Amendment Act, 1937 and 1938, Restoration of Bakasht Lands and Reduction of Arrears of Rents Act, 1938, and the Champaran Agrarian (Amendment) Act, 1938, were some of the other provisions made. The *raiyats* took advantage of these Acts. There was also some agitation against the imposition of grazing fees by the Ramnagar Raj on the Tharus of Ramnagar, Shikarpur and Bagaha police-stations. The Rent Reduction Operations started from 1938 continued till 1941 when they were stopped due to rise in price owing to the outbreak of the Second World War. The proceedings for commutation from produce rent into cash rents were not considerable as the area held on produce rent was comparatively small in the district.

The Champaran Agrarian (Amendment) Act of 1938 like the Chotanagpur Tenancy (Amendment) Act of 1938 was passed with a view to meet the special needs in the matter of tenancy legislation for local areas. The Congress Ministry was conscious of the iniquitous enhancements commonly known as the "indigo enhancements". As a result of a wide agitation headed by Mahatma Gandhi the Champaran Agrarian Act was passed in 1918. Though the Act made substantial reductions in the enhancements but even those reduced enhancements were found to be heavy and extremely unpopular. Therefore, the Congress Government enacted a new legislation to cancel all the indigo enhancements.

The *khas*-held lands of the zamindars were known as *Bakasht* and formed a large proportion of the best lands in the district. They used to settle portion of this *Bakast* land arbitrarily with tenants on year to year basis but did not grant rent receipts for the same to prevent accrual of occupancy rights to them. This system led to frequent tensions and the matter between the landlords and the tenants often came to the criminal courts. The proceedings under section 145, Criminal Procedure Code, usually took a long time to decide possession. This used to be followed by title suits. For speedy disposal and giving opportunities to the tenants to nominate members to the Arbitration Board and thus give better opportunities to place the evidence, the Bihar Bakasht Disputes Settlement Act was passed. This gave considerable relief. According to the Act when the Collector was satisfied on enquiry that there was dispute between landlord and tenant over *bakasht* lands and there was likelihood of a breach of peace, he had to refer the dispute to Arbitration Board, the Chairman of which was to be appointed by the Collector and members to be nominated by the parties if they liked.

The problems relating to the land revenue system had engaged the attention of the Government and the public men in Bengal and Bihar where the Permanent Settlement of 1793 prevailed. Towards the end of 1938 the Government of Bengal had appointed a Land Revenue Commission to examine generally the various aspects of the existing land revenue system with special reference to the Permanent Settlement. The Commission pointed out that in order to improve the economic conditions of the cultivators the Permanent Settlement and the zamindari system should be replaced by the *raiyatwari* system so that the cultivators should be brought into direct relationship with the Government.

With the formation of the second Congress Ministry in 1946 the question was actively taken up. The Bihar Legislative Assembly had adopted a resolution, "That this Assembly recommends to Government that immediate steps be taken for the abolition of the zamindari system".* In order to bring direct relationship between the tiller of soil and the Government, two Bills, viz., the Bihar State Management of Estates Bill, 1947 and the Bihar State Acquisition of Zamindaries Bill, 1947 were brought before the Legislature. Two years later the Bihar State Management of Estates and Tenures Act, 1949 (Bihar Act XXI of 1949), was passed. The validity of some of these Acts was challenged in court. The Abolition of Zamindaris Act, 1948, received the assent of the Governor-General on the 6th July, 1949. The validity of this Act was challenged and while the petitions were pending in the High Court the State Act was repealed by the Bihar Legislature and another measure called the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1949 was introduced in the month of December, 1949. The Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 was passed on the 25th September, 1950. The Bihar Land Reforms Act was challenged by some of the landlords of the State. Parts of this Act were declared *ultra vires* by the Patna High Court. The Constitution was amended by the Constitution 182 Amendment Act, 1952. Even after the amendment of the Constitution, the Act was challenged to be *ultra vires* but the Supreme Court declared the Act to be *intra vires* except for some minor sections. In pursuance of Government's decision to take over the big estates and tenures having a gross annual income exceeding Rs. 50,000, the Ram Nagar Estate, Madhuban Estate and the Parsa Concern, Ltd., were notified.† Subsequently the State Government decided to take over all the zamindaris under the provision of section 3 (*b*) of the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 and so all the estates and tenures of Champaran were vested in the State (including the Bettiah Court of Wards Estate) with effect from the 26th January, 1955.

PRESENT SYSTEM OF SURVEY, ASSESSMENT AND COLLECTION OF LAND REVENUE.

The Tauzi Manual which dealt with the Zamindari revenue and cess is now hardly applicable in the vested estates and tenures. Prior to the vesting, as a general rule, the revenue of the estate was payable at the treasury of the district and the landlords were primarily responsible for *kistwary* payment of the land revenue in the treasury, but since the abolition of the zamindari, a separate department of the Government has been opened as Land Reforms Department. The Additional Collector of the district, subject to the supervision and control of the Collector, is directly in charge of this Department. Further one Deputy Collector is posted at each subdivisional headquarters, known as Land Reforms Deputy Collector. Each subdivision is divided into a number of Anchals or Blocks, with

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* *District Gazetteer of Gaya,* published in 1957, p. 300.

† Compendium of Government Orders and Circulars of Land Reforms and allied matters (Revenue Department).

8 to 12 *halkas* each and each *halka* with 5 to 10 villages. There are 2,853 villages in the district and they have been grouped into 360 *halkas* and all these *halkas* into 36 *anchals*.

It was proposed to place one Gazetted Officer of the rank of the Sub-Deputy Collector as Circle Officer in each *anchal* for the land revenue administration. Due to paucity of officers, however, it has not been possible to post one officer in charge of each *anchal* and some of the officers are in charge of two *anchals* at present but it is hoped that ultimately each *anchal* will have one Gazetted Officer. A Circle Inspector is also posted in each *anchal* to assist the Circle Officer. There is a *karamchari* in charge of each *halka* for collection of rent and agricultural statistics and other allied work. Rent collection work has also been entrusted to some of the Gram Panchayats.

The present land policy of the State is governed by the different Acts and rules enforced at present such as Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950, the Bihar Government Estates Manual of 1953, the Bihar Tenancy Act, 1885, the Transfer of Property Act, the Survey and Settlement Manual, etc.

ASSESSMENT AND COLLECTION IN FORCE.

After vesting of the estates into Government, the question of assessment of rent has been taken up by the Government for such homestead lands used for agricultural or horticultural purposes which were in *khas* possession of the ex-landlords on the date of vesting or such buildings or structures together with the lands on which they stand, other than those primarily used for, as office or *kutchery* by the ex-landlords. Besides these the assessment is made in the following cases :—

(*i*) in cases of *Gairmajurua Malik* land, land purchased in certificate cases, *Brit* land, *Belagan* land;

(*ii*) in cases of land recorded as *Bhaoli Batai* the kind rent is being commuted as cash rent;

(*iii*) the procedure for fixation of rent is adopted as laid down in section 9 (2) of the Government Estates Manual, 1953, that is, the rental is assessed at the rate applicable to lands of similar quality and its similar advantage in the vicinity. The power of assessment is delegated to the Collector under Land Reforms Act.

So far collection is concerned, the procedure has been laid down in the booklet " Rules providing for verification of collection, assessment of cesses, etc., in respect of vested estates and tenures ". The current (1958) total collectable *jama* of rent cess and *sairat* interests is Rs. 45,80,100 (forty-five lakhs eighty thousand and one hundred). The amount of the rental demand alone is Rs. 36,47,000. There had been regular drought since the last three years before the year 1958 and there were at the same time ravages of floods. However, the collection figure ranged between 75 per cent to 80 per cent. In brief, the procedure of collection is that the *karamcharis* collect rent from the tenants and against that they issue rent receipts to the tenants. The *karamchari* fills in the figures of the receipt in the connected registers with the help of the duplicate copy of the receipt with himself. When the money in hand of the *karamcharis* accumulates but not beyond Rs. 1,500 they deposit the amount with the Anchal Nazir who is posted at the Anchal Office. The Nazir in his turn deposits the money into Treasury or Sub-Treasury, as the case may be, and maintains a cash book, to be checked and signed daily by the Anchal Adhikaris concerned. Thus the ultimate responsibility of collection and remittance comes to the Anchal Adhikari. So far as the '*sairati*' interests are concerned they are settled on annual basis after bid, except in cases of fisheries, which are settled with Fishermen's Co-operative Societies on average *jama* of three years without bid. After the bid is completed, the entire bid money is realised at the spot and remitted to the Treasury.

Income from Land Revenue.

Generally the collectable *jama* is as follows :—

	Rs.
Rent	36,46,981
Cess	2,74,872
Miscellaneous	6,58,247

Besides the total revenue of a general nature the detailed figures as noted below for some years past will be of great interest.

Table showing Demand, Collection, etc., in respect of the estates vested in the Government under the Land Reforms Act, 1950, in the district of Champaran for the years :—

Years.	Nature of demand.	Demand.			Collection*.			Percentage of total collection on total demand.
		Arrears.	Current.	Total.	Arrears.	Current.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1953-54	Rent ..	2,73,992	4,58,188	7,32,180	1,41,616	2,47,850	4,24,770	58.01
	Cess ..	13,557	26,330	39,887	6,280	15,648	24,178	60.61
	Miscellaneous	39,343	74,913	1,14,256	12,907	51,554	67,519	59.09
	Total ..	3,26,892	5,59,431	8,86,323	1,60,803	3,15,052	5,16,467	58.27
1954-55	Total ..	4,14,155	9,55,512	13,69,967	1,86,386	3,97,963	9,03,999	65.98
1955-56	Total ..	10,08,793	44,04,720	54,13,513	6,44,549	36,96,956	47,27,916	73.00
1956-57	Total ..	16,01,245	45,06,669	61,07,914	8,15,872	36,11,878	49,28,382	..

*The difference in the total collection figures is due to advance collection being made not for the year current, but for the coming year.

By the year 1955, the estates, one to all, were vested in the Government, which explains the marked difference of the figures for the year 1955-56, as against those of previous years. Detailed figures for the year 1955-56 are given below to have an idea of the expanded items of revenue :—

Table showing Collection and Demand Figures.

Year.	Nature of demand.	Demand.			Collection.			Percentage of total collection on total demand.
		Arrears.	Current.	Total.	Arrears.	Current.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1955-56	Rent ..	8,04,150	35,72,375	43,76,525	5,64,582	28,06,810	34,98,315	72
	Cess ..	1,22,227	2,67,619	3,89,846	44,031	2,05,566	2,57,915	66
	Miscellaneous	82.416	5,64,726	6,47,142	45,936	6,84,580	9,71,666	83

LAND REFORMS.

Agrarian Movement.

Although referred to in other chapters a recital of the salient features of the agrarian movement since the beginning of this century may be briefly reiterated.

The major portion of the district was owned by the big zamindars and the European indigo planters and none of them had good relations with the tenants.

From 1900 to 1905 the strained relations between the landlords and the tenants continued. In 1905-06 the Bihar Planters' Association expressed disapproval of the action of one of the large indigo concerns in taking from the *raiyats* a levy called *hunda* as compensation or damages for not cultivating indigo, and the manager agreed to discontinue the levy. In 1906-07 the Collector discussing the continuance of the *abwab* system writes :—

" Long custom, traditional homage to landlords and a desire to live in amity with them, explain the acquiescence of the tenants in these demands."

From 1907-08 the relation between landlords and tenants became acute. Mr. Bloomfield, Manager of the Telpara factory was murdered. The reduction of opium cultivation occasioned considerable loss to the *raiyats*. The indigo oppressions made them feel frustrated and at times desperate. Agrarian troubles at the Sathi area (1907-08) caused widespread discontent among the peasants. The kernel of this disturbance, as of all the subsequent agitation, was the *tinkathia* system. The upshot of the Sathi disturbance was an agreement, "that such *raiyats* as did not wish to grow indigo or oats on the *tinkathia* system, should pay for their irrigation from the *pains* at the rate of Rs. 3* for every bigha of their holdings, and should execute agreements to this effect". The registration of these *pains* as improvements was in progress, when the more serious agrarian disturbance of 1908-09 broke out, and temporarily put a stop to the work. When the conditions were settled again, the *raiyats* quietly executed agreements or *sattas*. Details of these troubles have been covered elsewhere.

The Bettiah disturbance, 1908-09.—The general spirit of uneasiness owing to the *tinkathia* system so acute in the Bettiah subdivision broke out in the area of Parsa factory and spread to the Mallahia, Bairia and Kuria areas. The outbreak was ruthlessly suppressed by the military force and the disturbances were quelled in November, 1908. Mr. Gourlay, the Director of Agriculture and once Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah was deputed by the Government to hold an enquiry. As stated before a report was submitted in April, 1909 and after informal discussion between Government and members of the Planters' Association, major changes were made in the existing system. Although a superficial quiet followed, the feeling against the existing system continued unabated and the recusant element gained confidence from the immunity enjoyed by the agitators in general, the acquittal of the persons convicted in connection with the Sathi disturbances of 1907-08, and particularly the modifications by the High Court of the death sentence passed by the Sessions Judge on the murder of Mr. Bloomfield. In December, 1911 a large number of *raiyats* assembled at Narkatiaganj railway station to mention their grievances to His Majesty the King-Emperor, who was then on his way back from Nepal, and in January, 1912 they sent representatives to submit a memorial in Calcutta.

The historic events that followed were the visit of Mahatma Gandhi to investigate into the grievances of the indigo cultivators in connection with *tinkathia, sarabeshi* and *tawan* systems, the institution of a Committee of Enquiry and the passing of the Champaran Agrarian Act, 1918 removing many of the inequities.

The subsequent historic events were the Non-co-operation Movement and the Civil Disobedience Movement. They have been discussed previously. The age-long agrarian disputes between the landlords and the *raiyats* came to an end with the passing of the

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* In the *tinkathia* land the raiyats were given water from the factory *pains* at the rate of 1½ annas per *bihga* of their holdings only for the upkeep and extension of the *pains.*

Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950. The present set-up to realise rentals, etc., has been described elsewhere.

With the abolition of the zamindaris Government stepped into the shoes of the ex-landlords, so it is now a question of relation between the Government and the tenant. While all efforts are being made to maintain cordial relation with the tenants, reports are sometimes received that the *karamcharis* who are in direct touch with the people are not always helpful to them. Prompt measures are taken to stop malpractices and harassments meted to tenants.

Settlement of Lands with the Landless.

The insertion of a new section, viz., section 48-E in the Bihar Tenancy Act is made with the sole purpose of providing for restoration of lands to under-*raiyats* unlawfully evicted. Emphasis has recently been given to settle vacant lands with the members of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes. Such lands have been settled with the members of those mentioned classes in Champaran up to the tune of 1,031 acres with 1,028 families (up to March, 1959).

Compensation.—Section 32 of the Bihar Land Reforms Act provides for payment of compensation to the ex-intermediaries. As it was not possible to pay compensation within a short period, provision was also made for making *ad interim* payment under section 33 of the Act. According to this provision, the ex-intermediaries are to receive six-monthly payments at the rate of three per cent per annum of the approximate amount of compensation payable when such amount does not exceed Rs. 50,000 and the rate of two and half per cent (subject to the maximum of Rs. 62,000) per annum when the approximate amount exceeds Rs. 50,000.

Since the vesting of estates and tenures 9,064 intermediaries (up to 15th July, 1959) filed the required applications for compensation. The total sum paid as *ad interim* compensation amounts to Rs. 10,38,428 Np. 65 with 8,453 intermediaries.

Bhoodan Movement.

Including the dependants there are about 4.5 million landless labourers in the country. Champaran district is no exception. The consolidated farms in the hand of the European planters and the zamindars encouraged the multiplication of landless labourers. It was widely realised that the abolition of intermediary rights while conferring certain rights and privileges on the cultivating tenants would not benefit the landless labourers. Vinoba Bhave, a disciple of Gandhiji sponsored the Land Gift Movement (Bhoodan Yagna). This started from Telingana (Hyderabad). It is a purely voluntary movement where an appeal is made to the nobler instincts of land owners to donate land which would ultimately be distributed to the landless. Acharya Vinoba Bhave has his own band of workers and one of them is Sri Jay Prakash Narain of the neighbouring district of Saran.

The Bhoodan Movement has received a support from some of the political parties and the State Government of Bihar. Legislative measures have been taken and executive instructions issued by the State Government for the proper allotment and management of the donated lands.

Bhoodan Movement was sponsored in Champaran district in July, 1954 when a Bhoodan work office was established at Motihari. The table below indicates the progress of the movement :—

Statement with figures covering up to February, 1959.

No. of donors.	Land acquired so far.				Land distributed.	
	No. of *danpatras* received.	No. of *danpatras* verified and registered.	Land in—			
			Acres.	Decimal.	Acres.	Decimal.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3,599	7,505	3,445	3,536	15½	2,550	33¼

Although the figures in the table do not show a large progress of the movement, yet it is getting momentum. As against only 1,599 *danpatras* received till the year 1957, their number as shown in the table is suggestive. Moreover the attention of the Government has also been drawn to the necessity of assistance in cash to the landless labourers receiving land for cultivation so that they may have some capital to start cultivation. The Harijan Welfare Department of the district has arranged for assistance to the tune of Rs. 22,227 till now (February, 1959), for the Harijan and Scheduled Class people receiving land from the Bhoodan fund.

Implementation of the Bihar Land Reforms Act.

The implementation of the provisions of the Bihar Land Reforms Act involved a lot of difficulties at the initial stage for the local administration. The collection by the Collector at the beginning has been somewhat poor due to various reasons. The ex-landlords had in most cases realised rents for the period subsequent to the date of the vesting of their estates in Government. Tenants also had readily paid rents to their outgoing landlords as the latter had allowed a handsome remission. Out of the Government share of rent it was found that the outgoing landlords had realised a good percentage from the tenants. The Land Reforms Section had to take necessary steps for the realisation of this amount from the outgoing landlords. The ex-landlords also did not file the village papers of all the villages and the tenants too were not agreeable to produce rent receipts as a result of which the collection work was very much handicapped.

The fact that there has been no recent Survey and Settlement Operations was an impediment. The Land Reforms Section in the Collectorate had immediately to take up field *bujharat* for the purpose of bringing up-to-date the records-of-rights. The Tauzi and Cess Departments were converted into Rent and Cess Departments. The Land Reforms Section of the district was further entrusted with the agricultural statistics, execution of minor irrigation and improvement schemes, local development work, besides collection of rent and cess, etc. For the sake of revenue administration the district is divided into 27 *anchals** under an officer of the gazetted rank.

The implementation of the Bihar Land Reforms Act in abolishing the zamindaris has not had a sufficient experiment to make a correct appraisal of the impact on the economic condition of the people. We are far too close to the great experiment which has been taken up with the sole idea of bringing more relief to the tenantry. At the initial stage there are bound to be a certain amount of opposition, possible mistakes owing to the inexperience of the staff and the possibility of some corruption at the lower level particularly cannot be eschewed. But there cannot be two opinions regarding the broadbased policy which has brought in land reforms.

One of the criticisms of the land reforms has been the delay in paying the compensation to the ex-landlords. The delay is because of the necessity of a *bujharat* of the papers and this is partially due to the non-co-operating attitude of the landlords in not making over a complete set of papers of their *kutchery*. There have also been certain unfortunate changes in the set-up for the working of the Land Reforms Act. At first it was decided that estates with an income of Rs. 50,000 and above should be taken over. Work had started according to this set-up. But subsequently all the zamindaris have been taken over and naturally there has been an additional strain due to the change in the set-up. The collection of rent and cess has been taken up in the vested estates through *karamcharis* and *saraits* had been settled with the highest bidders by public auction. The *kutcheries* and *tahsil* offices of the vested estates have also been taken over. Educational institutions, hospitals and dispensaries hitherto run by landlords are now being maintained by the Government out of Improvement Grant. The payment of compensation is being expedited now.

The Land Reforms Act is the fore-runner of other reforms which are on the anvil in connection with the problem of land distribution, regulation of rent, co-operative farming, etc. After the complete abolition of intermediaries, it will naturally be necessary to enact tenancy reforms in order to give full security of tenure to the tenants and to stop the various types of evictions and evictments which may have been perpetrated by the ex-landlords. Some statutory measures as stated before have been taken to stop such evictions. Personal cultivation has also to be regulated. At present, there is no limit to the extent of lands that can be held for personal cultivation although it is not physically possible for him to look after it. A ceiling on agricultural holdings is likely to be fixed sometime or other as a necessary corollary to the land reforms movement. The First Five-Year Plan had laid down that the rate of rent exceeding one-fourth or one-fifth of the produce should be regarded as requiring special justification. The movement of co-operative farming has to be popularised.

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* The Government have sanctioned 36 *anchals* but only 27 *anchals* have been put into operation up to July, 1959.

It has been correctly held that merely enacting progressive land reforms will not be enough and that there should be a proper and efficient administration for implementing the land laws so that difficulties and harassment to those who are the beneficiaries are reduced to the minimum. There has to be a clean and honest administration particularly at the village level as otherwise, much of the value of progressive land reforms will be lost. The Second Five-Year Plan has also laid down suggestions regarding the future of the land reforms.

CHAPTER XI.

LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE.

INCIDENCE OF CRIME.

The district of Champaran, in close vicinity of Nepal, has received close attention of the authorities since centuries back. India under the British rule and Nepal under its independent king, had frequent border disputes, most of which were on the eastern frontier of the district of Champaran. Old Correspondence Volumes kept in the Record Room of the Champaran Collectorate, show frequent correspondence from the officers of both the countries in the nineteenth century about a criminal absconding in one of the countries beyond the reach of the police.

Other types of border disputes also used to occur. A letter no. 130, dated the 27th April, 1840 from G. D. Wilkins, Joint Magistrate, Champaran, to Mr. B. H. Hodgson, Resident of Nepal mentions about the exercise of force by the Nepalese soldiers in their collection of *sayer* rents about Purrunda and Dodhourd. It was reported that one Foujdar Jushur Rai with a large body of followers overstepped his boundary not only to collect a few *bunkar* rents but also to make arrangements for the forcible transfer of several villages to Nepal territory. The borders were ill-defined at one time and often the rivers would change their course, upsetting the limits, if the rivers formed them. At times the boundary pillars used to disappear for some reason or other. Apart from Nepal, criminals from Uttar Pradesh borders used to commit crimes within Saran district and run away.

The last *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938) mentions :—

" The commonest forms of serious crime are burglary, theft, rioting and dacoity. In 1931 the totals of cases reported were as follows : Theft 414, burglary 772, receiving stolen property 62, robbery 14, dacoity 74, riots and unlawful assemblies 124 (separate figures are not available), hurt with aggravation 83, murders 12 and culpable homicide 10. These figures show an increase on the figures of 1929, which may be taken as a normal year, when the totals of cases reported were theft 343, burglary 572, receiving stolen property 51, robbery 20, dacoity 15, riots and unlawful assemblies 70, hurt with aggravation 82, murder 9, culpable homicide 6. The large increase in the more serious forms of crime is to be attributed mainly to the spirit of irresponsible lawlessness which is the inevitable result of the campaign of civil disobedience, which spread throughout the district in 1930. The economic depression did not apparently contribute much to the increase, as crime did not appreciably increase when the depression was at its worst and there was no large increase in the less serious forms of crime against property as might be expected.

" Champaran has always been subject to the raids of dacoits from Nepal and from Gorakhpur and Saran districts as from its shape and geographical position it is easy for criminals to commit dacoities in the district and then slip across the borders. For many years a border patrol of *chaukidars* had been organised along the Nepal frontier, as a check against these raids. Gangs recently formed in the district have, however, been mainly responsible for the increase of this form of crime.

" The riots have usually, as previously, been the result of land disputes, but often have been of a more serious type. Recently, for instance, a dispute over a small plot of land led to a riot in which five men were killed."

As against the figures of crime quoted from the last Gazetteer by R. E. Swanzy, the statistics of crime for some years past, show a somewhat higher incidence. There appears to be a general rise in the crime figures as shown in the chart below taking the year 1929, as the normal year, which Mr. R. E. Swanzy had taken likewise :—

	Murder.	Dacoity.	Robbery.	Burglary.	Theft.	Riot.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1929 (Normal year)	9	15	20	572	343	70*
1931	12	74	14	772	414	124*
1942	19	118	33	1,032	735	134
1943	19	92	38	1,211	884	105
1944	11	48	26	1,042	691	97
1945	10	51	18	961	623	84
1946 ..	13	68	13	973	740	56
1947	22	48	12	861	573	64
1948	23	45	15	860	533	79
1949	19	30	18	807	663	97
1950	23	64	26	863	639	107
1951 ..	23	93	29	916	736	113
1952	26	75	16	803	645	101
1953	30	56	28	809	530	91
1954	31	57	25	803	568	106
1955	22	38	20	677	563	123
1956	29	29	29	723	578	95
1957	40	52	13	899	602	120
1958	23	42	15	637	593	132

* (together with unlawful assemblies).

The table quoted shows that as compared to the figures of the normal year 1929, cases of murder had increased by about three times with occasional shooting up by about four times, of dacoity by about three times, of theft and riot by about twice in 1958. Cases of robbery and burglary show a somewhat static trend, and within a very short range of variation. All these point to some of the following generalisations about the nature of crime getting predominant. Murders are more frequent since 1947. Thefts have however diminished.

Cases of dacoity show a considerable increase. In 1931 there is a tremendous increase of about seven times; 15 cases recorded in the year 1929 and 74 in the year 1931, which may have association with the economic depression of 1929. Also in 1942, the figures shoot up abnormally, which may be due to the incidents of 1942 national movement for the freedom of the country being recorded as such criminal acts. This movement certainly explains the sharp rise in the cases of riots. It is also possible that anti-social elements took advantage of the unsettled times and committed crimes.

Criminal Tribes.—" Champaran " as mentioned in the last *District Gazetteer* is the home of a criminal tribe known as Magahiya Doms, who are described in a monograph entitled the " Outcasts " by Geoffrey R. Clarke, I.C.S., in 1903 from which I quote " The Magahiya Dom has made little or no advance since we first knew him. He is still a nomad and a thief. In the words of Mr. J. Kennedy, late Collector of Gorakhpur, ' He is born in a *arhar* field and schooled to theft from his infancy. He wanders as an outcast from the beginning. He lives without shelter and without food for the morrow perpetually moving from encampment to encampment chased by the police and execrated by the village. His greatest pride is a successful burglary and a prolonged drinking bout his most coveted reward. Hinduism has failed to reach him, its great gods are unknown to him, even the local divinities are seldom the object of his reverence '. Jail offers no terror to the Dom.............. Despite the fact that Government has provided agricultural settlements for him in Gorakhpur and Bihar, the Dom is still a nomad. The settlements serve as houses for the women and children but men are seldom found in them.

" Since 1903 the life of the Dom has changed and is changing materially. The first systematic attempt to reclaim the Magahiya Doms in the district was made by Mr. (Late Sir E.) Henry, the District Magistrate, in 1882, who established settlements at Chauterwa in the village of Bargaon and at Fatehpur, where they were given land to cultivate, huts to live in and agricultural implements and farm stock. Later settlements were established at Ramnagar and Chauterwa and at the present time there is one large settlement at Chauterwa, in which all the members of the tribe are concentrated except those whose names have been struck off the register or to whom permanent or temporary leave has been given to live outside the settlement.

"The Doms live now under strict discipline and unless leave of absence is given, they are locked up at night. They are registered under the Criminal Tribes Act under which absconding is a criminal offence. The settlement was managed by special police officers until August 22nd, 1913, on which date it was taken over by the Salvation Army and is now known as the Salvation Army Agricultural and Industrial Settlement. Last year (1931) there were 323 adults and 141 children, i.e., total 464 in the settlement. There were 38 cases of absconding during the year but 21 of these were caught or returned. The increase of women and children absconders was due to a story circulated amongst the settlers that their children would be taken from them and sent to school."

These remarks have no force now. The Doms are certainly now not a criminal tribe although there are black sheep among them just as in other sections. Their position and economic condition has not improved satisfactorily. They still remain more or less casual wage earners and always depend upon the *mahajans* for occasional needs of marriage and other ceremonies. Although they did not take to Christianity, a considerable number of them observe Christian festivals. The Bihar State Government had requested the Harijan Sewak Sangh to take charge of the Chauterwa Dom Settlement and the Sangh accordingly took over its charge on 1st April, 1947.

The Sangh has taken interest in their welfare. A full-fledged basic school has been started. The Criminal Tribes Act has been made inoperative by the executive orders of the District Magistrate, who released 153 Doms on 30th October, 1950 and made them free.

Lands have been distributed to them at the rate of 10 *kathas* per adult and 5 *kathas* per child. The State Government have sanctioned some pairs of bullocks for their cultivation. A grain *gola* has been started for their benefit and a co-operative society has been established. The Sangh has built houses for some families in the village Pakargaon.

The relationship of the Dom with the other local people has also improved. The previous idea of suspicion and hatred among the local public about these Doms is melting.

ORGANISATION OF POLICE FORCE.

The *District Gazetteer* published in 1907 by L. S. S. O'Malley mentions the organisational set up of that time as follows: "The police of each subdivision are in charge of an Inspector, under the general control of the Superintendent of Police. The police force in 1905 consisted of a District Superintendent of Police, 3 Inspectors, 36 Sub-Inspectors, 1 Sergeant, 27 Head Constables and 328 Constables.

The total strength of the regular police was therefore 396 men, representing one policeman to every 8.9 square miles and to every 4,521 persons. There is also a small body of town police; and the rural force for the watch and ward of villages in the interior consists of 138 *dafadars* and 2,405 *chaukidars.* The chaukidari union system was for the first time introduced in the headquarters subdivision and in two outposts of the Bettiah subdivision in 1902-03 and was extended to the rest of the district in the following year ".

The chart below shows the different thanas and police outposts in Champaran at that time :—

Motihari Subdivision.

Thana.	Outpost.
Motihari	Sugauli.
Kessariya	Pipra.
Gobindganj.	
Dhaka	Ghorasahan.
Adapur	Raxaul.
	Chauradano.
	Madhuban.

Bettiah Subdivision.

Thana.	Outpost.
Bettiah	Majhaulia.
	Bhaura.
	Jogapatti.
Shikarpur	Ramnagar.
	Lauria.
	Mainatanr.
Bagaha	Dhanaha.

As mentioned in the last *District Gazetteer,* by R. E. Swanzy, published in 1932, the district was divided for police purposes into three Inspectors' circles. Sadar A consisting of Motihari, Dhaka, Ghorasahan, Adapur and Raxaul thanas and Sadar B consisting of Gobindganj, Kessariya, Madhuban, Sugauli and Pipra thanas while the Bettiah subdivision formed the third. A fourth Inspector was employed in the Court at Motihari. His duty was to prosecute cases before the Court. The force included also one Deputy Superintendent stationed at Motihari, one Sergeant Major, 39 Sub-Inspectors of whom four are employed in the Court (two at Motihari and two at Bettiah), 35 Writer Head Constables, 16 Havildars and 374 Constables. These figures were those of the sanctioned cadre on 31st December, 1931. There was one policeman to every 4,575 persons. With the exigencies of administration the police organisation had to be expanded. Not only the expansion covered the regular police force but also such wings as Home Guards, Railway Protection Police, Armed constables, etc. There are now (1958) one Superintendent of Police and two Deputy Superintendents of

Police, stationed one each at Motihari and Bettiah. The district is divided into four circles with a number of police-stations under their fold. The list of police-stations given below is circlewise, as well as subdivisionwise :—

Sadar Subdivision.

Inspector ‘A’ ..	Motihari Town Police-station. Motihari Mofussil Police-station. Dhaka. Patahi. Ghorasahan. Adapur. Raxaul. Motihari Town Outpost I. Motihari Town Outpost II. Motihari Town Outpost III. Motihari Town Outpost IV.
Inspector ‘B’ ..	Gobindganj Police-station. Harsidih Police-station. Sugauli Police-station. Kessariya Police-station. Pipra Police-station. Madhuban Police-station. Kotwa Outpost. Mehsi Outpost. Chakia Outpost.

Bettiah Subdivision.

Inspector ‘Bettiah’ ..	Bettiah Police-station. Chanpatia Police-station. Nautan Police-station. Jogapatti Police-station. Majhaulia Police-station. Sikta Police-station. Lauria Police-station. Bettiah Town Outpost I. Bettiah Town Outpost II. Bettiah Town Outpost III. Bettiah Town Outpost IV.
Inspector ‘Bagaha’ ..	Bagaha Police-station. Dhanaha Police-station. Shikarpur Police-station. Ramnagar Police-station. Mainatanr Police-station. Chauterwa Police-station. Semra Police-station. Thakraha Police-station. Piprahi Police-station.

As regards the current (1958) strength of the police, there are in Inspectorate 'A'—one Inspector, 9 Sub-Inspectors, 12 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 101 constables and 4 havildars; in Inspectorate 'B'—1 Inspector, 7 Sub-Inspectors, 13 Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 66 constables; in Inspectorate 'Bettiah-'—1 Inspector, 9 Sub-Inspectors, 11 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 114 constables and 4 havildars; and in Inspectorate 'Bagaha'—1 Inspector, 7 Sub-Inspectors, 13 Assistant Sub-Inspectors and 66 constables. Besides these, there are some 12 Inspectors and 6 D. A. Ps. for the courts at Motihari and Bettiah. The total strength of the police, together with that of *chaukidars,* is given in the table below :—

Statement showing the strength of the police and village watch in the district in the year 1955.

Number of police-stations	26
Number of outposts	10
Total strength of police (Inspector to constables).	776
Number of police who can read and write (excluding officers).	717
Proportion of police to population ..	1 : 3,241
Total strength of *chaukidars*	

The present strength of the police force as against the accounts given in the last two *District Gazetteers* gives an impression of the importance of this organisation. It is stated in the Gazetteer (1907), that the "total strength of the regular police was 396 men, representing one policeman to every 8.9 square miles and to every 4,521 persons". The last Gazetteer (1932) calculates that "there is one policeman to every 4,575 persons in the district". And now (1958) as per table quoted above from the *Bihar Statistical Hand-Book,* 1955, there is one policeman for every 3,241 persons.

HOME GUARDS.

The Bihar Home Guard Force was organised in 1948. The idea behind this organisation was to supplement the police force if necessary by already trained persons drawn from the public. There are set Home Guard Rules, on the basis of which enrolment, training and execution of work are arranged.

The Home Guards have been enrolled from every part of the district and they have been imparted training in the use of rifles, *lathi,* archery, fire-fighting, first-aid, drill, traffic control, field craft, musketry, etc., at the Central Training Camp at Bihta. As per quota fixed by the Commandant, the final head of the Home Guard Unit on the State level, the District Magistrate recruits the persons for the Home Guard Force and through the District Headquarters of this Unit at Motihari, send them to be trained at the Central Training Camp.

With the Commandant as the final authority on State level at Patna and Battalion Commander at Muzaffarpur, the administration of the Home Guard organisation is run by four Company Commanders, stationed at Motihari, Dhaka, Gobindganj and Bettiah, who are all paid staff.

There are 279 Home Guard Volunteers in this district. They are volunteers and whenever they are at home, they render service on no cost basis. They are utilised in organising village resistance groups. On occasional clashes or breach of peace, or in any emergency, they are utilised by the Government in maintaining law and order and for that period they get allowances, etc., according to the scheduled rate as fixed by the Government. They are guided by the Company Commanders who are directly under the Superintendent of Police.

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS.

There is a district jail at Motihari and a subsidiary jail at Bettiah. There is a wholetime Superintendent in the District Jail at Motihari and the Civil Surgeon is the Medical Officer of the jail. The Superintendent has the assistance of a Jailor, two Assistant Jailors, a staff of warders and a doctor incharge of the Jail Hospital under whom there are also a compounder and one dresser.

Constructed in the year 1936, the District Jail contains 16 cells, 1 general kitchen and 2 worksheds. There are 3 wards in the general side and 3 wards consisting of jail hospital, segregation and T. B. Wards, besides dispensary and operation rooms and hospital kitchen in the hospital side inside the jail.

There is a self-contained civil ward also attached to the District Jail ouside and also a separate female enclosure, consisting of 3 wards, 1 cell, and 1 workshed inside the jail.

The capacity of the Motihari District Jail is as follows :—

Convicts	197	
Cells	18	(including 2 European wards).
Female Ward	32	(including one cell).
Civil	6	
Hospital	38	
Undertrials	76	
Total ..	367	

The capacity of the jail shown in the table, indicates a rather static trend since some decades back. The *District Gazetteer* published in 1907 mentions that "the Jail at Motihari has accommodation for 349 (318 males and 31 females) prisoners distributed as follows and barracks without separate sleeping accommodation are provided for 256 convicts, 20 female convicts, 6 under-trial prisoners and 6 civil prisoners; the hospital holds 43 prisoners; and there are separate cells for 13 males, 3 juveniles and 2 European convicts". On this point the *District Gazetteer* published in the year 1932, notes that "the capacity of the jail at Motihari at the present time is convicts 258, under-trials 32, civil 6, females 31 and hospitals 38, total 365". Against these figures when the total current capacity (1958) is taken into consideration, the conclusion rather becomes apparent that the capacity of the jails has remained static.

The average population of the Sadar Jail during 1947—1951 is shown below :—

Year.	Male.	Female.
1947	419.69	.54
1948	533.88	3.79
1949	413.65	6.45
1950	371.48	7.99
1951	526.49	10.65

The average population of the Sadar Jail was 383.32 males and 8.23 females in the year 1931. In 1951 this average shot up to 526.49 males and 10.65 females.

The sub-jail at Bettiah is under the charge of Civil Assistant Surgeon, Bettiah, who is assisted by an Assistant Jailor and a staff of warders. Its capacity is 95 (90 for males and 5 for females) prisoners. Like the District Jail at Motihari this jail usually remains overcrowded.

Vocational training, educational and other facilities provided in the Jail.

In both the jails of the district, arrangements for training crafts such as cloth weaving, tape weaving, tailoring, spinning, *duree*-making, oil pressing, manufacture of file board and flat files making, etc., exist.

For general education of the inmates of the jail, provision has been made for a teacher, who is selected from amongst the prisoners themselves. There is also an arrangement for holding meetings of the prisoners to discuss the problems. The jail authorities give due considerations to the requirements of the inmates. The reforms recently introduced are—

(*i*) For good work and conduct in jail, one-third remission of sentence is awarded. It was for one-fourth period in the past.

(*ii*) All classes of prisoners have been allowed to supplement their food with dry fruits from outside.

(*iii*) Iron plates and cups have been replaced by aluminium or brass *thalis* or tumblers.

(*iv*) Tobacco and its products (*biri*) have been allowed to be used by the prisoners in jail at their own cost or through their friends and relatives, while it was strictly prohibited before for the jail inmates.

(*v*) Ordinary convicted prisoners are allowed interviews once in a month and under-trials once in a fortnight while it was once within three months and once in one month respectively earlier. Similar facility has been granted for writing and receiving letters at Government cost.

(*vi*) Prisoners have been allowed to read newspapers at Government cost.

It may be said that the whole outlook of the prison organisation has undergone a radical change. Now-a-days efforts are made to impress the inmates psychologically to abstain from committing crimes and to lead a civilized and peaceful life. The approach to the problem is psychological and sympathetic and the prisoners are treated in a way that they could go back to the society as better men. Prisoners are classified by the Courts concerned according to the records of the convicts into 'A' and 'B' classes. 'A' denotes the casual prisoners and 'B' the habitual prisoners. Prisoners belonging to higher standard of living may be classified as Class I and Class II division prisoners and in which case they receive better fooding and facilities than others. All prisoners are treated alike and there is no distinction of caste and creed. Juvenile prisoners receive special care and it is seen that they get proper facilities to improve their educational and mental make-up. Probation system is also introduced.

Criminal and Civil Courts.

Criminal justice in the district was administered up to May, 1945 by the District and Sessions Judge of Muzaffarpur who used to hold court of sessions at Motihari for the trial of the more serious cases committed from Champaran by the Assistant Sessions Judge, stationed at Motihari who had powers to pass sentences of transportation and imprisonment up to seven years and by the District Magistrate and Magistrates subordinate to him. Benches of Honorary Magistrates with single sitting powers were also appointed.

A separate Judgeship at Motihari was created in the year 1945 and the first District and Sessions Judge of Champaran took his seat on the 1st June, 1945. It removed a long-felt want of the people of the district.

The separation of the Judiciary from the Executive was a constant demand of the Indian public, as the combination of the two functions during the British period was an anachronism leading to suspicion regarding the type of justice that was administered.

Following the recommendation of the Meredith Committee, the judiciary was separated from the Executive in this district with effect from 1st July, 1957. With this separation, the Judicial Magistrates, the Munsif-Magistrates and the Judicial Honorary Magistrates have been placed under the control of the District and Sessions Judge. They are employed in the trial of all criminal cases under the Indian Penal Code. Offences under minor Acts, preventive proceedings under Criminal Procedure Code and cases under Special and Local Laws still continue to be dealt with by the Magistrates on the executive side.

The remarkable feature of this separation was that it was given effect to by an executive instruction of Government and not by any Act of Legislature. That way, it was felt, the change-over can be brought about with the least possible delay and interference with the existing administrative set-up. The effect of the separation in making justice speedier, has already been noticed.

The present strength of judicial officers consists of two Munsif-Magistrates and three judicial Magistrates at Motihari and one Munsif-Magistrate and two judicial Magistrates at Bettiah. Besides there is one Honorary Magistrate both at Motihari and Bettiah. On the executive side, the cases not transferred to Magistrates on the judicial side continue to be dealt with by the Executive Magistrates in addition to revenue, development and other work arising out of the responsibility for general administration and the maintenance of law and order. The permanent strength of the Magistracy sanctioned to help the District Magistrate consists of Deputy Magistrates and Sub-Deputy Magistrates, viz., five or six Deputy Magistrates and two Sub-Deputy Magistrates for the district headquarters and two Deputy Magistrates and one Sub-Deputy Magistrate for Bettiah. The strength is frequently supplemented and is likely to expand more.

Another innovation in the administration of criminal justice was brought by the establishment of Gram Kutcheries under the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act. The Gram Kutcheries are intended primarily to render quick justice at a cheap cost. By providing a court at the villages, the public are saved from the necessity of running to the Subdivisional and District Courts for petty offences. It was felt that a better climate for a speedy disposal of the cases exists in the villages where the facts of the case are better known and the witnesses from the same village or from the neighbourhood will depose more truthfully. That is why Gram Kutcheries are expected to be quicker in disposal of cases or bring about compromises.

Lawyers are not so far allowed to appear in the Gram Kutcheries. An attempt is made to help the litigants from prolonged litigation and heavy expenditure. The Gram Kutcheries have the power of a Magistrate of the third class (inflicting a jail sentence of one month and a fine of fifty rupees) and are empowered to try certain petty offences under the Indian Penal Code, the Bengal Public Gambling Act, and the Cattle Trespass Act. The table below shows the number of disposal of cases in Gram Kutcheries :—

Year.			Number of cases lying with the Gram Kutcheries.	Number of cases disposed of.
1951-52	..	..	4,072	3,053
1952-53	..	..	1,883	1,458
1953-54	..	..	5,609	4,540
1954-55	..	..	8,152	7,090
1955-56	..	..	9,106	7,707
1956-57	..	..	11,172	9,374

There is an increasing tendency to rely on these rural courts for cheap and quick justice, but the Panchayats have been advised to settle disputes more by compromise than by trial and decision. Panchayats are acting more and more on these lines.

CIVIL JUSTICE.

The administration of Civil Justice was, as in the case of Criminal Justice, under the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge of Muzaffarpur till May, 1945. A separate judgeship for the district started functioning from the 1st June, 1945. Prior to this, Civil courts in the district consisted of a Subordinate Judge at Motihari and a few Munsifs stationed at Motihari and Bettiah. Now there is a court of Subordinate Judge who is vested with unlimited Civil pecuniary jurisdiction. He is also vested with the powers of an Assistant Sessions Judge and is empowered to pass sentences up to 10 years besides powers to hear appeals from the decisions of the second and third class Magistrates. He is also vested with small cause court and civil appellate powers and hears appeals preferred against the decisions of the Munsif. Such appeals are, however, transferred to his file by the District Judge. There are also one permanent Munsif stationed at Motihari and one at Bettiah to try cases up to the value of Rs. 4,000. They are also vested with small cause court powers up to Rs. 250. Besides the permanent courts, additional courts are posted when there is congestion of civil suits and cases. At present two Additional Sub-Judges and four Additional Munsifs are holding courts at Motihari and one Additional Munsif at Bettiah.

There has been a steady increase in civil litigation. In the year 1956, there were 124 title suits, 724 money suits, 651 small cause court suits and 1,427 rent suits instituted in the courts of the

Munsifs at Motihari and Bettiah, as against 30 title suits, 23 money suits, 72 small cause court suits and 2 rent suits in 1931. The institution of rent suits has decreased to a great extent after the abolition of the zamindari system in the State.

As in the administration of Criminal Justice so in the administration of Civil Justice there has been an additional agency with the constitution of Gram Panchayats under the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act, 1947. The Act provides jurisdiction of a bench of the Gram Kutchery to hear and determine certain classes of suits when the value does not exceed one hundred rupees. A table is given below to show the number of such suits lying at Gram Kutcheries and their disposal either by compromise or by dismissal or by decree :—

Year.	Number of suits lying with the Gram Kutcheries.	Number of suits disposed of.
1951-52	732	562
1952-53	458	388
1953-54	1,501	1,037
1954-55	2,121	1,778
1955-56	2,307	1,901
1956-57	2,588	1,933

Here we also find an increasing tendency of suits being instituted before the Gram Kutcheries. The number of suits disposed of by way of compromise has been very large.

BAR ASSOCIATION, BETTIAH.

In Bettiah subdivision of Champaran district, there was no Civil Court prior to 21st October, 1918. Within a few days of the opening of the Civil Court all the pleaders formed an Association and nominated their office bearers and received sanction and approval of the Civil and Criminal Court authorities. The Bar Association, Bettiah did not have its own building till the Civil Court was shifted to its new building in 1926. The Bar Association built its own building with public subscriptions. The original strength of the Bar was only nine but gradually it reached the strength of 55 in 1958. The Bar Association has a library.

MOKHTEARS' ASSOCIATION, BETTIAH.

After the establishment of Subdivisional Officer's Court at Bettiah one *Mokhtearkhana* used to be held in a building of the Bettiah estate and there were about 10 members in the Association. In 1904 the present building was constructed with the help of subscriptions. Till 1920 the Subdivisional Officers were the nominated

Presidents of the Association. In 1927 the first election for the post of President and Secretary of the Association was held. Now the election is held annually.

CIVIL COURT BAR ASSOCIATION, MOTIHARI.

The building of this Association was built after the new building of the Civil Court was built in 1936. The original strength of the Bar Association was 14 but it has reached the figure of 122 members in 1958. The Bar Association has got a good library.

The relationship of the Bench and the Bar has been cordial. The Bar has taken a prominent lead in matters political and social. Prominent members of the Bar have been liberal in their patronage of clubs and athletic societies.

CHAPTER XII.

OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT.

There is a District Agricultural Officer with his headquarters at Motihari who is incharge of the Agriculture Department. The Director of Agriculture, Patna is the departmental head at the State level and the Deputy Director of Agriculture at Muzaffarpur at the Divisional level is the superior authority of the District Agricultural Officer. The District Agricultural Officer is assisted by two Subdivisional Agricultural Officers with their headquarters at Motihari and Bettiah. He has his own field staff. There are some subject-matter specialists and technical men, such as a Botanist, a Chemist, a Horticulturist and a Mechanic, one Marketing Inspector, one Fisheries Inspector, one District Engineering Supervisor, one Well-boring Supervisor, etc.

There is one Demonstration Farm at Peepra, where a Farm Manager, with three Agricultural Inspectors and one Junior Research Assistant work with some subordinate staff.

The two Subdivisional Officers at the Subdivisional headquarters have their own staff of Agricultural Inspectors, Fisheries Supervisor, Engineer, Overseer, Horticultural Inspector, etc.

Lower below in the Blocks or definite zones with a number of villages, there are Agricultural Extension Supervisors, with Farm Assistants, Ploughmen, etc., under the Block Development Officer.

The duty of the staff is to implement the agricultural policy of the Government. The work starts right at the fields. There are *Field Assistants,* who conduct experiments in the fields of the cultivators on various crops in accordance with the plan sent by the Field Experimental Specialists, Bihar, Patna. They take timely observations, maintain proper records and submit reports and returns, which help the specialist in his work according to a plan and on a scientific basis. There are *Agricultural Inspectors* for arranging supply of seeds, fertilisers, implements, etc. They are assisted by some *kamdars* who look after the maintaining of stores and in feeding and proper up-keep of the bullocks. There are also Junior Research Assistants who help in conducting experiments in accordance with the plan laid down by the Agronomist and study and report the timely observations. They are assisted by the Fieldmen in agronomical experiments and taking observations thereof. For expert advice, there are Subject-Matter Specialists, specialising in different subjects like Agronomy, Botany, Chemistry, Horticulture, etc., who all try to carry on the demonstration and propaganda work on a most dependable and correct line. The idea is to bring modern scientific knowledge about agriculture to our cultivators.

Efforts are also made towards popularising the improved implements. Technical men with mechanical skill attend the meetings of the blocks and advise the village level workers on the use of the improved implements, tractors, etc. They hold demonstrations and ascertain the cultivators' problems regarding the improved tools and find out their solution.

Besides popularising of scientific methods of cultivation, improved implements, etc., as has been mentioned above, the Department also comes to the aid of agriculturists in the problem of irrigation. Indian agriculture, as has been commonly held, is the gamble of the monsoon. Strenuous efforts of the people are set at naught if the rains fail in times of need. Medium and Minor irrigation works, surface percolation wells and diesel driven pumping sets are arranged with the minimum financial burden on the consumers. There are *Well-boring Supervisors,* who inspect and supervise the work of the borers engaged in boring operations of the tube-wells of different sizes as well as open boring without strainers. This aspect of the scheme is under the overall supervision of *District Engineering Supervisor.*

There are two important farms, e.g., at Peepra and Bettiah, managed and owned by the Government. There are *Farm Managers,* who carry on the work of the farm with the help of Sardars, ploughmen and some other subordinate staff. The proper sowing and upkeep of crops, maintenance of cattle, etc., are attempted in the Farm, and results of varieties of seeds and methods are recorded. The cultivators are encouraged to see the actual working in the field and profit thereby.

The District Agricultural Officer has to control, guide and supervise the execution of all types of agricultural schemes functioning in the district and to co-ordinate their activities and act as agricultural advisor. Previously the District Agricultural Officer was entrusted with the work of supervision and control of the overall aspects of agriculture. But gradually the production of sugarcane and development of fisheries grew in such prominence that they caught special attention. Foreign exchange consideration and local consumption necessities combined to separate the sugar and fisheries sections from the previous general set-up. There is one Assistant Director of Agriculture since the year 1957-58, specially entrusted with the sugarcane development work and there are Fisheries Inspectors under the District Agricultural Officer to see the fisheries extension work. Research in sugarcane is going on in the Institution for Sugarcane Research at Pusa in Darbhanga District. The Assistant Director for Sugarcane is in close touch with the Specialists at Pusa. As regards the sugarcane development work, there are two Assistant Directors of Agriculture, stationed in the sugarcane belts at Motihari and Narkatiaganj, respectively. These Assistant Directors of Agriculture are assisted by the Agricultural Inspectors, who concentrate their work in the reserved areas of the sugar factories of this district. In each of the sugar factory reserved areas, the Inspectors generally organise demonstrations by even sowing and producing better type sugarcane on the selected plots and then popularise the scientific and productive process of production. The selection of demonstration plots is made on a definite pattern and sought to be made popular. The Pusa Institute has, by intensive research, brought out special varieties of sugarcanes with higher yield. They have also researched on pest-control and sugarcane diseases. The results of their researches are sought to be propagated.

The changes sought to be brought about in the agricultural structure, it appears, have been impeded to a great extent by meagre finance, scruples, and lack of interest of the agriculturists. Since the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan till July, 1958 in the Second Five-Year Plan, only 4,733 maunds of improved seeds have been distributed as against a target of 30,176; out of a target figure of 1,445 Bihar ploughs to be distributed, only 296 have been distributed and out of 587 manurial demonstrations to be made, only 92 have been made. So far only 696 maunds of *dhaincha* and 9,080 maunds of *sanai* have been distributed as green manuring seeds. Attempt is being made to popularise the Japanese method of cultivation. Certain improved implements, like puddler, Japanese weeder cultivators, etc., are being distributed.

The sugarcane development work has received close attention during the few years past. The production target of sugarcane at the end of Second Five-Year Plan (1960-61), has been fixed at 45 lakh tons, for the whole State, i.e., an increase of 50 per cent over the production of the base year (1955-56). Targets for cane development work for each Sugar Factory Area in Bihar have been fixed up, for each year of the schematic period for distribution of manure and fertilisers, establishment of seed nurseries, distribution of disease free cane seeds of improved varieties and organisation of demonstration, etc., which may result in achieving the target.

Like sugarcane, the Fisheries Section has also been receiving more attention now. This section is functioning since 1945 in this district. It was a part of Industries Department, till the 31st March, 1952 and from that date, it became a part of the Agriculture Department. Till the 31st March, 1956, there were one Fisheries Inspector and one Fisheries Assistant, posted at the headquarters at Motihari. But from the 1st April, 1956, the Fisheries Section has been completely integrated with the general administration and extension organisation of Agriculture Department. Now (1959) there are one Fisheries Inspector, two Fisheries Sanctuary Supervisors, four Fisheries Guards placed under the administrative control of District Agriculture Officer and two Fisheries Nursery Supervisors, one each placed under the Subdivisional Agricultural Officers at Motihari and Bettiah.

The staff in the Fisheries Section have to develop the resources of the fisheries of the district through intensive collection and distribution of fish fry, development and exploitation of Khasmahal tanks, participation in exhibition and fairs for propaganda about the development of fisheries by manuring of tank and other means, development and exploitation of Government reservoirs, tanks and ponds and improvement of storage and transport of fish in markets.

Since 1956-57, one more fry distribution centre has been arranged making a total of two in the district, one each at the subdivisional headquarters at Motihari and Bettiah. Fish fries are distributed usually at a cheap price. Two demonstrations in the year 1956-57 and three demonstrators in the year 1957-58 regarding manuring of tanks have been conducted and also 12 demonstrations regarding paddy-*cum*-fish culture have been conducted in the year 1957-58. No proper arrangements have been made so far as the basic market survey is not completed. This district was once a great source for various types of fish including *mahseer*. The *mans* or channels of water are getting choked and silted and thus a great source of fish has been declining. The fishermen are mostly scattered all over the district and disunited and there is not much of co-operative system either to catch or sell fish. The Fisheries Section have a great problem before them.

FOREST DEPARTMENT.

In this district, there was no State-managed forest till the 5th November, 1951. The management of the Ramnagar Estate Forest came under the Forest Department, Bihar under the Bihar Private Forests Act (Act IX of 1948) on the 9th October, 1950 and later on with the application of the Land Reforms Act (Act IXXX of 1950) the Ramnagar Estate vested in the State of Bihar and consequently Indian Forest Act was applied to the forests by January, 1954. The forests of Bettiah Estate also came gradually under the Government management.

The forests in the State are under the Forest Department with the Chief Conservator of Forests at the head who has his headquarters at Ranchi. The jurisdiction is divided under two territorial circles, namely, Northern and Southern Circles, each of which is under the charge of a Conservator of Forests. Besides there is another circle called Development Circle, which looks after the afforestation side whereas research, utilisation of forest resources and working plans are directly under the Chief Conservator of Forests. The forests in Champaran district are under the jurisdiction of the Conservator of Forests, Northern Circle, with headquarters at Hazaribagh.

A Forest Division is the organisation for the proper managemen of forests for a specified zone. Every Forest Division is under the charge of a Divisional Forest Officer. The forests of North Bihar Division form a Division under the charge of a Divisional Forest Officer with his headquarters at Bettiah.

The forests of North Bihar Division are distributed under six ranges, namely, Madanpur, Gonouli, Bagaha, Western, Central, Eastern, with one Forest Range Officer for each range. Gonouli Range has got three Beat Officers of the rank of Foresters and under them are Forest Guards to look after their sub-beats. The ranges have been divided into 14 beats, each under the charge of a Beat Officer. Further these beats are again divided into 57 sub-beats each of which is under the charge of a Forest Guard. One beat covers nearabout four or five sub-beats which in their turn cover an area of approximately five square miles.

The duties of a Forest Officer include—

(1) Proper management of the existing forest so that the condition of forest may improve and the maximum sustained annual yield may be procured.

(2) To meet the demand of the Tharus and Dhangars who happen to be privileged holders of Bettiah Estate pay cess of six annas per bigha of their holding and in return they are supplied with timber and firewood for their domestic and agricultural requirements. Similarly for Tharus and Dhangars of Ramnagar Estate, there is a system of *charsa* permit on payment of prescribed fees for them and on these permits they are entitled to take firewood and timber for their domestic and agricultural requirements.

(3) Bettiah Estate Forests were formerly worked under the Working Plan. But there was no regular planned management in Ramnagar Estate Forests. After the forests have come under the management of Government, a Working Plan has been drawn up for both the Bettiah and Ramnagar Estate Forests by the Working Plans Officer, Northern Circle.

The forests of Bettiah and Ramnagar Estates are now being worked under a scheme of the Working Plans Officer, Northern Circle. The yield is regulated by enumeration and on the basis of available trees of exploitable girth, making one tree out of three exploitable ones at a place.

The felling of miscellaneous and *semal* trees is regulated on the basis of a sustained yield from year to year keeping in view the object of building up the forest capital with improved growth and quality. The annual yield of *khair* trees has also been fixed.

The cane forest is being worked in a four-year cycle dividing the forest into four equiproductive parts each to be worked in a year so that the period elapses between two successive fellings in the same area is 4 years which is considered sufficient to develop a good growth of cane for its commercial use.

The chapter 'General' has a statement regarding the total revenue and the total expenditure of the Forest Department (Bettiah Division). The years from 1950-51 to 1956-57 have been accounted for there. Out of these seven years, last four years have shown a surplus and the first three deficit. But it appears as if the trend of increasing income has become a regular feature. In the year 1953-54, the total revenue is Rs. 93,861 and total expenditure Rs. 82,589; in the year 1954-55, these figures are Rs. 1,73,266 and Rs. 1,82,894 respectively and in 1955-56, Rs. 2,05,682 and Rs. 1,51,275 and in 1956-57, Rs. 4,96,957 and Rs. 1,74,961 respectively which all indicate a healthy trend.

A series of roads and bridges have been made by the Forest Department which has made access possible into difficult but productive tracts of the forests. Thereby more exploitation of the forest resources has been made possible. The following forest roads existed which were taken over by the Forest Department, when the forest came under its management :—

	Miles.
(1) Ganauli-Jharharwa	3
(2) Ganauli-Jatashanker	9
(3) Hathimalkhanta-Kalapani	4
(4) Bhainsalotan-Kharkharia	1
(5) Bherihari-Pathlahwa	$8\frac{3}{4}$
(6) Kobraha-Thari	3
(7) Darmahari-Lachmipur	1
(8) Pipra-Chunbhatta	3
(9) Rampur-Bhainsalotan	24

Out of the above, the Ramnagar-Bhainsalotan road has been handed over to the Public Works Department, in the year 1958, for construction of a *pucca* road between Bagaha and Bhainsalotan in connection with the Gandak Project. No forest roads existed in the Ramnagar forests.

After the Forest Department took over the management of both the Ramnagar and Bettiah Estate forests, the following roads have been constructed so far with a view to open the inaccessible forests for proper management and exploitation :—

	Miles.
(1) Gobardhana-Thori	10
(2) Gobardhana-Gardi	5
(3) Raghia-Bankutwa	2
(4) Gardi-Kalapani	6
(5) Baluthappa-Gardi	6

Two Forest Rest Houses, one at Naurangia and one at Gobardhana, in addition to the two previously made, and some residential and office quarters have been constructed by the Department.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT.

Previously, under the name of Veterinary Department this Department had worked with limited scope and action. The work of the entire district was supervised by a non-gazetted Veterinary Inspector with his headquarters at Motihari. There were only three Veterinary Hospitals in the district, one each at Bettiah, Motihari and Bagaha. The Hospital at Bettiah was run by the Bettiah Estate and the rest two by the District Board. Besides there were five dispensaries, one each at Chakia, Areraj, Dhaka, in the Sadar subdivision and Bettiah, Narkatiaganj in the Bettiah subdivision. With these centres, the Veterinary Department worked only on the curative side. Prevention of the outbreak of diseases by vaccination, etc., endeavours to improve the general condition of cattle health by fodder arrangements through development and demonstrations of fodder production, etc., were not at all taken up during those years. But now with the enlarged scope, the field covers both curative and preventive measures. The Animal Husbandry Department now is concerned with livestock and its activities are mainly the development of livestock industries, including breeding, nutrition, research, disease control, dairy, production of fodder and marketing of animal produce.

The scheme for the establishment of the supervisory posts of the Animal Husbandry Department in the district of Champaran was introduced during 1957. Under this scheme, two administrative posts, viz., District Animal Husbandry Officer with his headquarters at Motihari and Subdivisional Animal Husbandry Officer with his headquarters at Bettiah were sanctioned and the officers joined their respective posts during May, 1957.

The officers are required to visit each Animal Husbandry Institution in their respective jurisdictions. The Subdivisional Animal Husbandry Officer at Bettiah works under the supervision of the District Animal Husbandry Officer.

The District Animal Husbandry Officer at his headquarters at Motihari is assisted by one Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, Incharge Rinderpest Scheme, one Livestock Inspector, one Fodder Overseer and some office assistants.

Expansion of Veterinary Services.

Under this scheme several Class I Veterinary Dispensaries have been started under the management of the State Government, with a view to give treatment to diseased animals and to attend the outbreaks of cattle disease. During the First Plan Period, the Class I

Dispensaries were started at the places where they were needed most. But from the Second Plan Period, the State Government has adopted the arrangement to start Class I Veterinary Dispensaries at the Block Headquarters. So far, the Department has started 12 Class I Veterinary Dispensaries besides six Veterinary Dispensaries which are managed by the District Board. In all the Dispensaries the technical staff, viz., Veterinary Assistant Surgeons are provided by the State Government. The dispensaries started by the State Government during the First Plan Period are at Bettiah (Hospital), Sugauli, Ramnagar, Gaunaha, and during the Second Plan Period are at Madhuban, Pakridayal, Turkaulia, Sidhao, Dhanaha, Patarhi, Kessariya, Mainatanr and Mehsi, and those started by the District Board are at Chakia, Raxaul, Dhaka, Areraj, Narkatiaganj and Bettiah. These dispensaries treated cases of general diseases, carried out castrations and inoculations and worked in epidemic outbreaks during 1957-58.

Provincialisation of Veterinary Hospital.

The Veterinary Hospital at the district headquarters, Motihari, under the District Board was taken over by the Department under the management of the State Government from 20th July, 1957. One Senior Veterinary Assistant Surgeon in Junior Class II of Veterinary Service has been posted to this hospital.

The average daily attendance of the Provincialised Veterinary Hospitals, Motihari is reported to be on the increase. The treatment to animals is made here at a charge which varies according to the classification of its owners.

All-India Key Village Scheme.

This scheme provides the following item of work to be done :—

Opening of All-India Key Village Centre.—All-India Key Village Scheme was sponsored by the Government of India and has been in operation in the State since 1952. The scheme aims at improving the general efficiency of the cattle by adopting scientific methods of breeding, feeding, disease control and marketing. Selected bull calves are reared at the key villages for distribution after maturity for the purposes of upgrading. Under this scheme one key village centre was started at Shikarpur on the 16th December, 1954. The work of the centre was managed by one Artificial Insemination Inspector, with 6 Stockmen and there were 4 key village units during the First Plan Period. During the Second Plan Period the centre was extended and 2 more key village units were added to the key village centre. The number of Stockmen was also increased from 6 to 8. Thus there are 6 key village units at present running under the main key village centre. The centre has since been shifted to Bettiah from Shikarpur.

There are 31 villages in the key village centre. There are 3,820 cows and 1,271 buffaloes fit for breeding purpose in these key villages (1958). Six hundred and twenty-two cows have been inseminated artificially and 197 by natural service. One hundred and fifty-seven calves have been born from the insemination done artificially and 23 by natural service.

Poultry Development Scheme.

There are four Poultry Extension Centres and one Poultry Hatching Centre in the district. These Centres produce eggs out of which some are sold for hatching, some used in incubator at the Farm and some are sold for the table.

Production and Trial of Fodder in Bihar.

One hundred demonstrations in each National Extension Service Block are required to be done for which Rs. 160 has been provided in each Block. One thousand four hundred and seventy-two demonstrations have so far (1958) been made.

Animal Husbandry Extension Work.

For the execution of the schemes of the Animal Husbandry Department one qualified Extension Supervisor has been posted in each block under the administrative control of the Block Development Officer.

Scheme for Eradication of Rinderpest.

The Rinderpest disease takes away a heavy toll of cattle and the State has therefore introduced a scheme to eradicate the disease. One Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, 3 Livestock Supervisors and 22 Stockmen are working under this scheme. On an intensive scale vaccinations against Rinderpest have been made.

INDUSTRIES DEPARTMENT.

The Head of the Department is the Director, who is assisted by two Additional Directors at Patna. The Department has been divided into two branches, one Technical Education and the other General Administration and Extension programmes. There are also technical experts earmarked for each division who are known as Assistant Directors.

In the district of Champaran, there is one District Industries Officer, with one Subdivisional Inspector each for both the subdivisions. The Inspectors look after the schemes of Industries being financed by the Department. The Department is primarily meant to develop small scale and cottage industries of the district, and thus somehow ease the unemployment tension. The District Industries Officer with his Inspector's studies the scope of a particular zone and local people and arranges for machineries for small industries. They provide for technical education through which the people trained therein may acquire livelihood by manufacturing things of general use. It is for the Industries Department to study the people, requirements and possibilities and select particular types of small cottage industries for the area. There are two sorts of industrial centres in the district: (*a*) one under the direct control of the Block Development Officers and (*b*) under the direct administration of the District Industries Officer. The Inspector of Industries, stationed at Bettiah, does the supervision work of the Industrial Centres at Bettiah including those under the Block Development Officers.

The following centres are directly under the administration of the District Industries Officer :—

(*i*) *Bettiah Model Tannery.*—Tanning in a large scale will be taken up, but the work has not started. There is availability of raw materials and a certain amount of skill in curing hides and in hide business.

(*ii*) *Tanning and Tutorial Class, Bettiah.*—Working since September, 1958. This has been established here after being shifted from Biharsarif. Generally training is given to Harijans and Backward Class Mohammadans.

(*iii*) *Cane Bambooware Centre, Bettiah.*—Started from the month of August, 1958. Training in cane and bamboo product is given here.

(*iv*) *Glass Bangle Centre, Jiwdhara.*—Started from August, 1958. Bangles-manufacture is taught. The sand that is required is locally available.

(*v*) *Dyeing and Printing Industries, Chakia.*—Working since the year 1954.

(*vi*) *Weaving Demonstration, Chakia.*—Training in weaving is given here.

Tanning Tuitional class at Bettiah, although started in the month of September, 1958, yet began actually training the desirous persons since January, 1959. Altogether 12 students have been receiving training here, out of which eight are *Chamars* and four are Mohammadans. The period of training lasts for six months, but it is being thought to extend this period by six months more. There are so many processes of tanning, and each of the processes takes at least nearabout a month in being finished. First of all the leathers which remain in the skin form, are taken to liming with lime liquid, etc. Then deliming is done with Boric Acid or wheat brio and finally tanning.

There are two processes of tanning: (*a*) Vegetable tanning and (*b*) Chemical tanning. The first tanning is taken up in the liquid formed by mixing certain plant's special part, whereas the second one in the liquid of some chemicals. But the second system is dangerous in the rustic village system where it is meant to be popularised, and therefore, generally the first one is taught and preached.

After being trained, one man with a capital of one or two hundreds of rupees, can earn a profit of Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 per day. The raw materials and equipments are not very costly.

As regards the Cane and Bambooware Tutorial class, this institution was started since August, 1958, but preliminary preparations and arrangement of raw materials and trainees, took some months, and it started actual training since January, 1959. The period of training here is for six months, the sessions being from January to June and July to December.

Training is given here to manufacture round, waste paper basket, fruit basket, table flower basket, cycle basket, tiffin carrier, table, easy chair, photo frame, etc.

Up till now (1959), no permanent arrangement for sale of goods manufactured here has been made. No show rooms or shops have been established as such. The sale is arranged by the Senior Instructor, in the local markets or in *Bikash Melas* wherever held.

Persons trained here can earn from Rs. 2 to Rs. 10 per day on an average, with a similar capital of Rs. 50 to Rs. 500. The articles manufactured here attract a reasonable price leaving a good margin.

Co-operative Department.

With the Registrar at the head on the State level, the Co-operative Department in the district of Champaran is in the administrative charge of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Motihari Circle and Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bettiah Circle, with their jurisdictions of Motihari and Bettiah subdivisions, respectively. Over these Assistant Registrars, there is the Deputy Registrar, with headquarters at Muzaffarpur.

The Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Motihari Circle, is assisted by 1 General Manager, Motihari Central Co-operative Bank, 2 Inspectors, posted at Dhaka and Motihari, 3 Organisers at Motihari, Sugauli and Chakia, 19 Local Auditors, 2 Managers Bikash Mandals, Marketing and Supplies in the grade of Inspectors and some office staff. For Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies he is given 3 Organisers and 12 Supervisors who organise Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies and inspect and supervise their operation as provided under the Bihar and Orissa Co-operative Societies Act, 1935. Besides all this he has in his charge the Land Mortgage Bank also, with one Branch Manager and one Land Valuation Officer. Their work is to settle debts through the mortgage of lands.

Each of the Supervisors is placed in charge of 30 to 40 societies. It is their duty to maintain the records correctly and to assist in the smooth working of the societies in their charge. The Inspectors of Co-operative Societies supervise the working of the Supervisors at least once a year, with regard to each of the societies in charge of the Supervisor and suggest improvements thereupon. The Local Auditors, Co-operative Societies, audit the account for the co-operative year. The Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, co-ordinates the organisation and smooth functioning of the Co-operative Societies and registers the primary Co-operative Societies and industrial Co-operative societies. So far as the Co-operative farming and other societies are concerned, the Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Tirhut Division, Muzaffarpur, registers them.

Very recently (1958), the Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies have been linked up with the General Co-operative Societies, with only one Assistant Registrar over both the Sections, as against two previously. The Organisers and Supervisors in the Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies Section work so as to fetch reasonable price for sugarcane and also distribute improved cane seeds and fertilisers.

At the close of the year 1957-58 (31st March, 1958), there were 10 Co-operative Development and Cane Marketing Unions with 1,463 primary Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies affiliated to these Unions. Seventy thousand seven hundred and thirty-three canegrowers stood as members on roll, in these primary societies. Their total working capital including the balance of Rs. 13,06,571, being loans and deposits held, amounted to Rs. 27,13,323. Their total investments in the shares of the State Co-operative Bank, Patna, Central Co-operative Banks of the district, National Savings Certificate, Financial Corporation, etc., at the close of the year amounted to Rs. 3,40,302.

One lac twenty thousand nine hundred and eighty-six maunds of cane seeds of improved varieties, including 29,313 maunds of castor cakes and 12,037 maunds of fertilisers comprising of Ammonium Sulphate and Superphosphate were advanced to growers in assistance to improve sugarcane cultivation on modern improved methods. For proper lay-outs of fields, 1,728 sets of Bihar ploughs, 19 tractors with 21 implements were kept in use by the members of these Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies.

The total cane supply to different sugar factories in the district through these Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies amounted to 81,41,082 maunds (up to 31st March, 1958), the price of which amounted to Rs. 1,15,54,577. On the above supply of cane the societies earned a commission of Rs. 3,81,613.

With a similar pattern of work and almost equal number of workers, the Bettiah Circle Co-operative Societies carry on the work with the Assistant Registrar as the overall head. To assist the Assistant Registrar, there are one Bank Manager, National Co-operative Bank, two Inspectors, posted at Bettiah, 8 Co-operative Extension Supervisors under the Block Development Officers and Project Extension Officers, one each in all the eight Blocks; two Managers, Byapar Mandal Sahyog Samiti at Ramnagar and Bagaha; five Managers of Large-sized Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies at Mainatanr, Ramnagar, Gaunaha, Bagaha and Nankar Panchayat, the last being outside the Block; seven Supervisors and some office staff. For carrying on the work of Canegrowers' Co-operative Societies Section, there are eight Organisers and 23 Supervisors. These Organisers and Supervisors generally work in sugar factory areas, that is, in Bettiah, Chanpatia, Lauria, Majhaulia, Narkatiaganj, Ramnagar, Bagaha, Dhanaha, etc.

The figures below will indicate the position and improvement of the general co-operative societies of Bettiah Circle during the last three years :—

	1957-58.	1956-57.	1955-56.
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
Credit societies	280	261	222
Membership ..	11,004	8,348	6,996
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Share	1,95,177	1,79,353	72,049
Reserve and other Funds	41,422	41,187	21,198
Deposits	45,561	44,387	12,820
Borrowings	5,16,599	2,94,632	2,08,525
Loans to Members ..	3,50,582	1,81,641	1,65,843
Repayments	1,60,606	1,54,130	1,55,607
Outstanding	5,14,032	3,20,961	2,93,450

The number of credit societies, membership, deposits and borrowings is all going up, which is a healthy feature of the system, but the outstanding figure seems to lead all the rest, indicating something vitally wrong. It appears, as if the very essence of co-operative movement of being accommodating to other members' interests is lacking. Conniving at the payment of the borrowing is laid bare which mars the velocity of circulation of capital in it and the advantage is not being reaped by as many persons as it ought to be.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT.

With expanded scope of action and resources, the Public Works Department has been entrusted with the public utility works like that of construction of roads and buildings and some irrigation arrangements through canals and bunds.

There is one Chief Engineer as the head of the Department at the State level. In the district, there is one Executive Engineer to look after the progress of works in the district. The Motihari (Roads and Buildings) division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The division started functioning since 14th November, 1949 as a temporary division and has been made permanent with effect from 1st July, 1955. Headquarters of the division was shifted from Muzaffarpur to Motihari in July, 1955. Its jurisdiction was changed due to the formation of Bettiah division located at Bettiah with effect from 19th June, 1956. The whole district for administrative convenience has been divided into four subdivisions, namely, Motihari subdivision, Dhaka subdivision, Raxaul subdivision and Project subdivision. The first named subdivision is a permanent one while the latter three are temporary. Each subdivision is controlled by one Subdivisional Officer who holds a gazetted rank.

To assist the Executive Engineer in the Divisional Office there are Estimators, Draftsman and Tracers besides ministerial staff.

In the Subdivisional Office at Motihari there are Overseers, Amins and Clerks. The same type of staff has been provided in all the other subdivisions.

The Executive Engineer is the controlling and disbursing officer of the division. He controls and supervises construction of roads and buildings, inspects the works in progress and controls the payments. The Subdivisional Officers likewise are the heads of the supervising staff of their respective subdivisions. The Overseer gets the works executed according to the sanctioned plan and estimate.

On the pattern of work above noted, the Public Works Department till 1958 has taken up construction and improvement of a number of roads and buildings some of which are noted below :—

Roads.	Miles.
Construction of Sugauli-Bettiah road	18
Construction of Ramnagar-Someswar road ..	19
Construction of culverts and bridges in 1/6 to 12/3 miles of Sugauli-Raxaul road.	..
Improvement upon nearly 20 roads covering a mileage of about 400 miles.	

Besides these roads some buildings for hospitals, schools, co-operative godowns, officers' quarters, etc., have been constructed or are being constructed by the Department.

For irrigation purposes the Chief Engineer, Irrigation is the head of this Department at the State level. Under the Chief Engineer there are Superintending Engineers incharge of circles, posted at different places in the State.

There are Executive Engineers under the Superintending Engineer, who are posted at district headquarters incharge of maintenance and construction work.

Under the Executive Engineer, Champaran Division who is under the administrative control of the Superintending Engineer, Muzaffarpur there are three Assistant Engineers, posted one each at different Irrigation Subdivisions. There are Overseers under the Assistant Engineers who are placed nearest to the work sites and incharge of a section.

The Executive Engineer is to execute the work and to incur the expenditure, although the Chief Engineer as the technical head of the department on State level finalises the schemes and controls the expenditure. The Assistant Engineer, incharge of the subdivisions is mainly to inspect the work and check the measurement of work done under Overseers. The Overseers are generally posted at the work sites and they get the work executed by the contractors and labourers. They maintain all the canals and embankments by the help of Government coolies and guide irrigation work. These Government coolies are employed by the Department to work as group leaders in carrying out this work.

The construction of Burhi Gandak Embankment in the year 1957, widening of Tribeni Canals (transferred to Raxaul Division), and filling up gaps of Champaran Embankments during the years 1954—1956, have been some of the main activities of the department.

The extensive Tribeni canal system which radiates from Bhainsalotan in this district has been covered elsewhere. The maintenance of this canal system and the implementation of the objective, i.e., supply of water for irrigation purposes attaches special importance to the Irrigation Department.

CHAPTER XIII.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

DISTRICT AND LOCAL BOARDS.

District Board.

History.—The provisions of the Bengal Local Self-Government Act were extended to the district of Champaran in 1887 and in the same year the District Board was first established here. The Board then consisted of 17 members. The District Magistrate was *ex-officio* a member of the Board and was its Chairman up to 1924. In 1905-06 Government servants and the European planters predominated on the Board, 35 per cent being Government servants and 57 per cent planters while the land holding class accounted for the rest. In 1923-24, the Board consisted of 21 members of whom 6 were *ex-officio,* 5 nominated and 10 elected and altogether there were 10 Europeans on the Board. In 1924 the provisions of the Bihar and Orissa Amendment Act, 1923 came into force and the first election took place. This time the strength of the members was raised to 36, of whom 4 were *ex-officio,* 5 nominated and 27 elected. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman were non-official and elected. By this time the local branch of the Indian National Congress had come into prominence as a political body and a number of Congress men got themselves elected to the Board and had a predominating influence on it up to 1930. In the election of 1930 the Board was captured by non-Congressmen and the Board remained under them till 1940. In 1941 the Congress members again captured the Board, but resigned enblock in the same year in December, according to the directive of the High Command of the Indian National Congress. In the bye-election that was held in 1942 the Board went back to the hands of non-Congressmen. In the election of the Board in June, 1947 it was captured by Congressmen. The present strength of the Board is of 36 members, of whom 27 are elected, 6 nominated and 3 *ex-officio.* There has been no general election since 1947 and the same Board as constituted in 1947 had continued till the Board was vested in Government in 1958.

The District Board has the responsibility of construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, its own buildings for hospital and staff. It also maintains pounds and ferries, runs hospitals and dispensaries for men and animals both and maintains a public health department for the benefit of the people. Earlier it also used to construct and maintain school buildings and impart education up to Middle standard but since May, 1954 the management of education has been taken over by the Government, from the District Board to a great extent.

In 1956-57 the Board maintained 49 miles and 5 furlongs of metalled, 3 miles and 2 furlongs of black top roads and 1,127 miles and 1 furlong of unmetalled roads. It maintained 4 allopathic hospitals, 23 allopathic dispensaries and 24 *Ayurvedic* dispensaries and 4, homeopathic dispensaries. Besides, it was subsidising 3 allopathic, 62 *Ayurvedic,* 5 *Unani,* 1 naturopathic and 42 homeopathic dispensaries. The Board also maintained 8 veterinary dispensaries in that year. The number of educational institutions maintained by the Board in 1954 was 54 Managed Middle Schools and 16 aided schools, including those which were receiving only Government dearness allowance. In 1956-57 the Board maintained 69 wells and 22 tube-wells. There were two Dak Bungalows and 16 Inspection Bungalows under the Board, a list of which is given at the end of this chapter as Appendix 'A'.

Income.—The average income of the Board during the ten years ending in 1901-02 was Rs. 1,41,000, of which Rs. 89,000 were derived from rates, and during the quinquennium ending in 1904-05 it amounted to Rs. 1,48,000. In 1905-06 the income was Rs. 2,28,000, including Rs. 87,000 from Provincial rates, Rs. 13,500 contributed from Provincial revenues, Rs. 11,000 from tolls on ferries and Rs. 10,000 from pounds.

In 1922-23 the income from rates had increased to Rs. 3,05,035, since when it appears to have shown decrease till 1941-42, and the total income went up to Rs. 4,52,739. The income from ferries after 1924, when it was Rs. 29,680, increased to Rs. 46,018 in 1931-32, the reason being the transfer of control of six valuable ferries to the Board. In 1931-32 income from pounds had also increased to Rs. 15,866.

In 1929-30, which is chosen as being the last year before the Civil disobedience campaign and economic depression, the total receipts of the Board were Rs. 6,50,697, the most important items being rates Rs. 3,01,563; pounds Rs. 16,786; school fees Rs. 22,600; Government grant, educational, Rs. 1,95,340, Government grant, medical, Rs. 18,185; Medical, other contributions, Rs. 10,819; Ferries Rs. 32,724 and Government grant for Civil Works Rs. 15,000.

In 1941-42, the total receipts of the District Board were Rs. 6,96,218, the most important items being rates Rs. 2,79,732; pounds Rs. 11,760; school fees Rs. 35,240; ferries Rs. 33,782; Government grant, educational, Rs. 1,95,340; Government grant, medical, Rs. 24,966; medical, other contributions, Rs. 13,920; and Government grant for Civil Works Rs. 39,221.

The total receipts of the Board in 1941-42 were although more than 1929-30, but the receipt under the head 'rates' showed a considerable drop, the reason for which may be ascribed to the lamentable depression of the preceding thirties.

In 1951-52 the total receipts of the Board were Rs. 23,69,102, an increase of more than three hundred per cent over that of 1941-42. The most important items of receipts were rates Rs. 5,65,004, ferries and pounds Rs. 1,16,352; school fees Rs. 70,812; Government grant, educational, Rs. 7,57,262 Government grant, medical Rs. 41,587 and Government grant for Civil Works Rs. 2,68,836.

The most spectacular increase was noticeable in the items of rates, pounds and ferries, school fees and Government grant for education and civil works. The income from rates increased because the cess rate was increased from one anna to two annas in a rupee during 1944 and 1949, the increase from pounds and ferries is subject to wide fluctuations as they are settled by auction. The increase under the school fees was chiefly on account of increased number of scholars with the opening of more schools. The Government grant for education had to be increased as the pay of the teachers had been increased, and the increased grant for civil works was the necessary outcome of the post-war road reconstruction programme.

The average annual receipts of the Board during the quinquennium ending in 1955-56 were Rs. 19,00,628, the receipt under the most important items being Rs. 5,30,866 for rates; Rs. 4,90,451 for education; Rs. 88,191 for pounds and ferries; Rs. 1,32,727 for medical; Rs. 2,64,858 for civil works; and Rs. 3,33,800 for deposits and advances.

The average receipts of the Board had fallen down as compared to that of 1951-52 on account of the fact that there has been a steep fall under certain major hands of receipt such as pounds and ferries, education, and civil works and deposits and advances. In 1953-54 all the important ferries of the District Board were taken over by the Government, which resulted into a sudden drop in the receipt from Rs. 1,01,230 in the preceding year to Rs. 36,064 in that year and since then it has continued to be low excepting in 1955-56. Similarly, in 1954-55 the responsibility of education was taken over by the State and there was a receipt of only minus Rs. 303 in the year, which came to nil in 1955-56, as against Rs. 8,61,343 in the preceding year. The deposits and advances fell down to Rs. 1,07,740 in 1954-55 from Rs. 5,26,232 in 1953-54 and was only Rs. 1,39,204 in 1955-56. This is an amount deposited mainly by the contractors for civil works programme. In 1953-54 the amount under this head was very heavy as compared to the value of actual works programme and naturally it fell in 1954-55. In 1955-56 the value of the works to be executed was itself very low and did not attract much money under this head. So far the head civil works is concerned, there has been spectacular fall in the years 1953-54 and 1955-56, the amount in the former being Rs. 1,34,619 as against Rs. 4,62,838 in the immediately preceding year, and that in the latter being Rs. 80,766 as compared to Rs. 3,21,778 in the immediately preceding year. The drop in 1953-54 is the reflection of coming to a close of the post-war road reconstruction programme and that of 1955-56 is the outcome of the stoppage of a lump sum grant in 1954-55 for road reconstruction under the First Five-Year Plan.

Expenditure.—The average annual expenditure during the year ending in 1901-02 was Rs. 1,39,000 of which Rs. 82,000 were expended on civil works, Rs. 5,000 on medical relief and Rs. 19,000 on education. During the quinquennium ending in 1904-05 the expenditure averaged Rs. 1,44,000 per annum, and in 1905-06 it amounted to Rs. 1,80,000 leaving the large balance of Rs. 1,09,000. By far the largest income of the Board was spent on civil works, the amount being over Rs. 1,27,000 in 1905-06. After civil works education was the main head of expenditure, the amount being Rs. 28,000 in 1905-06.

In 1929-30 the heaviest expenditure was on education, the amount being Rs. 2,59,000; next item was civil works, the amount being Rs. 2,33,000, the third item was medical and sanitation, the amount being Rs. 83,066; and the fourth item was office establishment and contingencies, the amount being Rs. 27,013. The heavy expenditure on education and public health was partly because the district needed them badly, and partly because there was a fundamental change in the constitution of the Board, the influence of the official nominees being replaced by the elected representatives, most of whom belonged to the Congress Party which had evinced a keen interest in the welfare of the people.

In 1941-42 education continued to take the largest share of the total expenditure the amount being Rs. 2,52,777. The expenditure on civil works was Rs. 1,77,492, on medical and public health Rs. 1,24,000, on office establishment and contingencies Rs. 28,501, on superannuation including provident fund Rs. 11,893 and on printing Rs. 5,370. The amount of total expenditure was Rs. 6,85,725.

As compared to 1929-30 there was no particular change in the amount of any item of expenditure excepting public health and civil works, the former having been increased and the latter decreased. With the opening of a separate public health section under the District Board in charge of a District Health Officer since 1930, it was only natural that the expenditure on this item should have increased. So far civil works is concerned, it had already had enough share previously and the limited resources of the Board was applied towards other urgently needed services.

In 1951-52 the total expenditure of the Board was Rs. 25,61,187, of which Rs. 8,24,172 were spent on education; Rs. 6,49,932 on civil works; Rs. 4,33,447 on medical and public health; Rs. 4,74,628 on debts, deposits and advances; Rs. 80,389 on office establishment and contingencies; Rs. 40,201 on pension and provident fund; and Rs. 12,115 on printing.

There was a spiral rise in the total expenditure of the Board as compared to the expenditure of 1941-42. This heavy expenditure was partly an outcome of the post-war inflationary period and partly on account of other reasons. The pay of the teachers had been enhanced and there had also been considerable increase in the number of schools during the past decade. These two factors were responsible for the increase in the expenditure on education. The post-war road reconstruction programme to bring roads to the pre-war level necessitated enhanced expenditure on civil works. On the medical and public health front an Interim Urban and Rural Public Health Organisation programme was launched in 1951-52 to combat epidemics, which necessitated increased Public Health Staff for mass inoculation and disinfection of wells in greater number and hence, the heavy expenditure. The increased expenditure on office establishment was partly on account of enhanced pay of the staff and partly on account of expansion in the number of staff itself.

The average expenditure during the quinquennium ending in 1955-56 was Rs. 19,78,266, the amount of important items being Rs. 5,29,930 on education; Rs. 4,40,863 on medical and public health, Rs. 4,95,928 on civil works; Rs. 3,43,364 on debts, deposits and advances; and Rs. 75,324 on general administration.

The average quinquennial expenditure on every item, excepting medical and public health, was lower than 1951-52. All the factors responsible for lower average income were also responsible for lower average expenditure.

Local Boards.

There are two Local Boards in the district, that is Bettiah Local Board and Motihari or Sadar Local Board. Both the Local Boards are under the supervision of the District Board. The Local Boards manage pounds and look after the more important village roads which have been taken on the schedule as Local Board Roads. Prior to May, 1954, they also managed primary schools but since then they have been relieved of this duty.

Prior to 1924 the Motihari Local Board consisted of 3 *ex-officio* and 7 nominated members and the Chairman was the Subdivisional Officer, Sadar who was elected. In 1924 the Motihari Board consisted of 15 elected, 5 nominated and 1 *ex-officio* members. At present it consists of 15 elected and 5 co-opted members. The last election of the Board was held in 1948.

In 1956-57 the Motihari Local Board had 965 miles of *katcha* roads under it, and managed 59 pounds. At the time when education was taken away from the Board it had 626 primary schools under it.

The total income and expenditure of the Motihari Local Board in 1951-52 were Rs. 5,34,176 and Rs. 5,71,339, respectively. The average income and expenditure of the Board during the quinquennium ending in 1956-57 were Rs. 2,37,714 and Rs. 2,21,555, respectively. The average income and expenditure showed a considerable decline as compared to the income and expenditure of 1951-52. This was the result of education having been taken away from the Board, which was the chief head of its allotment as well as expenditure.

Prior to 1924 the Local Board of Bettiah consisted of 3 *ex-officio* and 8 nominated members; the Subdivisional Officer, Bettiah being its elected Chairman. In 1924 it consisted of one *ex-officio*, 3 nominated and 12 elected members and at present it consists of 12 elected and 4 co-opted members.

In 1956-57 the Bettiah Local Board had 500 miles of *katcha* roads under it, and managed 50 pounds. At the time when education was taken away from the Board it had 514 primary schools under it.

The total income and expenditure of the Bettiah Local Board in 1951-52 were Rs. 2,60,856 and Rs. 2,60,259, respectively. The average income and expenditure of the Board during the quinquennium ending in 1956-57 fell down to Rs. 1,10,811 and Rs. 1,06,242, respectively as the education was taken away from the Board in 1954.

Present control and management of the District and Local Boards.

The National Development Council appointed a committee on Plan Projects to ensure maximum possible economy and avoidance of wastage owing to delays and inefficiency, for the successful implementation of the Second Five-Year Plan. This committee appointed a team under Shri Balvantrai Mehta to study and report on the Community Projects and National Extension service. The report was subsequently published in November, 1957. In this report the Balvantrai Mehta Committee submitted a number of recommendations specially with regard to the future set-up of the District Boards. Owing to various reasons there were complaints against the management of the District Board. The last election of the Board had taken place in 1947. The Education Departments of the Board had already been taken over by the State Government. It was being felt that the District Board was not able to function properly and that a complete reorientation was indicated. The State Government decided to implement the recommendations of the Balvantrai Mehta Committee.

Bihar Ordinance no. VI of 1958 was published in an extraordinary issue of the *Bihar Gazette* on September 12, 1958, under which the Governor of Bihar was pleased to direct that all the members of the Champaran District Board including the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman shall vacate their respective offices with effect from the 15th September, 1958. The Ordinance conferred on the State Government powers to appoint a person to exercise and perform with effect from the 15th September, 1958, the powers, functions and duties conferred or imposed by or under the Bihar and Orissa Local Self-Government Act of 1885. The State Government appointed the District Magistrate, Champaran to exercise that authority for the Champaran District Board. Accordingly the District Magistrate of Champaran took over the management of the District Board.

Later the Minister Incharge of Public Works Department introduced in the State Legislature a Bill to take over control and management of District Boards and Local Boards in the State of Bihar. The Statement of objects and reasons of the Bill runs as follows :—

"The District Boards and Local Boards constituted under the provisions of the Bihar and Orissa Local Self-Government Act of 1885, have outlived their utility under the completely changed circumstances. On attainment of independence, there have been developments on a very large scale in the various fields of activities, viz., Agriculture, Industry, Co-operation, Gram Panchayats, etc. These developments call for a complete reorientation in the conception and constitution of District Boards and Local Boards so that these bodies could fulfil their role effectively in the changed circumstances. This is not possible unless the existing law is carefully examined in the light of these developments and amended suitably to meet the present needs of the society.

The Balvantrai Mehta Committee on the Community Development and National Extension Service have made a number of recommendations specially with regard to the future set-up of District Boards. These recommendations require detailed examination and careful consideration before the State Government could come to a definite decision in the matter, which will obviously take some considerable time. Besides, some of the sister States in India are considering legislation regarding the constitution and powers of these local bodies and it is necessary to examine the provisions of these laws and their actual working for some time before we embark on a comprehensive amendment of the Bihar and Orissa Local Self-Government Act.

It is, therefore, clear that the new set-up of District Boards will undoubtedly require comprehensive amendment of the Bihar and Orissa Local Self-Government Act, 1885. It was, accordingly decided by the State Government, to take over temporarily for three years, the control and management of District Boards and Local Boards, pending consideration of their future set-up. The Bihar District Boards and Local Boards (Control and Management) Ordinance, 1958 has been promulgated to give effect to this decision.

The Bill seeks to convert the Ordinance into an Act of the State Legislature as the Ordinance will cease to have effect after six weeks from the commencement of the present session of the State Legislature."

The Bill was duly passed by the Houses.

Union Boards.

Earlier seven Union Boards, namely, Sugauli, Shikarpur, Bagaha, Mehsi, Ramnagar, Chanpatia and Raxaul, were functioning. Of these Mehsi, Sugauli and Raxaul were in the Sadar subdivision and Chanpatia, Shikarpur, Ramnagar and Bagaha were in Bettiah subdivision. All the Boards were constituted under the Village Administration Act of 1922 and were vested with powers under parts III, IV and V of the Act. However, Bagaha, Chanpatia and Mehsi were already Unions under Act III (B. C.) of 1885.

Bagaha and Chanpatia Boards were constituted in 1925, Mehsi, Sugauli and Shikarpur in 1926, Ramnagar in 1944 and Raxaul in 1946.

The area of the Boards varied from 4 square miles in respect of Ramnagar to 38 square miles in respect of Raxaul. The population in 1951 varied from 6,600 in Mehsi to 23,928 in Shikarpur. The number of tax-payers varied from 484 in Ramnagar to 1,855 in Shikarpur, while the number of voters varied from 400 in Ramnagar to 8,707 in Chanpatia. The number of members of all Union Boards was 70, of whom 62, including 2 Harijans, were Hindus and 8 were Muhammadans.

In 1951-52 the total receipts including the opening balance of all the Union Boards were Rs. 1,04,618, of which *chaukidari* tax was responsible for Rs. 6,072; Union-tax for Rs. 14,973; pounds for Rs. 3,865; contributions from the Government for Rs. 1,456; contributions from the District Board for Rs. 54,039 and other sources for Rs. 3,281.

In the same year all the Boards spent Rs. 52,648 on education; Rs. 8,156 on conservancy; Rs. 3,638 on sanitation; Rs. 240 on water-supply; Rs. 1,510 on drainage, Rs. 2,389 on roads; Rs. 12,655 on establishment other than *daffadars* and *chaukidars* and Rs. 1,545 on collection.

With the establishment of Gram Panchayats the Union Boards proved to be a superfluous body. Therefore Sugauli, Mehsi and Ramnagar Boards have already been abolished and it was reported in May, 1957 that the Union Boards of Shikarpur and Bagaha were likely to be abolished soon. The remaining two Union Boards of Chanpatia and Raxaul will also be gradually replaced by the Gram Panchayats.

Municipality.

The district has two municipalities, namely, Motihari and Bettiah. Both these municipalities were established in 1869 previous to the passing of the Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act VII of 1922. Each Board consisted of 12 Commissioners, of whom 2 members were *ex-officio* and 8 in Motihari and 8 in Bettiah were nominated. Since 1923 there had been a change-over when each board was constituted of 20 members, of whom 16 were elected. In Motihari one and in Bettiah two members were *ex-officio* and the balance were nominated. At present the Bettiah municipality consists of 22 members, of whom 18 are elected, 3 *ex-officio* and 1 nominated. The Motihari municipality consists of 27 members of whom 22 are elected and 5 nominated including the *ex-officio* members. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman of both municipalities are elected non-official right from 1923. A description of each of the municipalities is given below :—

Motihari Municipality.

General.—The area of the municipality originally consisted of 6½ square miles but now the municipal limits extend over an area of 7¾ square miles. The total length of roads within the municipal limits is 20 miles and 3 furlongs, of which excluding 6 miles 4 furlongs, the entire road length is owned and maintained by the municipality. Of the total mileage of municipal roads 11 miles 3 furlongs are metalled and the rest are *katcha.* In 1956-57 the municipality maintained 24 Primary and 2 Middle schools. The Primary education is free and compulsory within the limits of municipality since 1939. The municipality maintains 12 miles and 700 yards of drainage of which 12 miles are *pucca* and the rest are *katcha.*

The scheme for the electrification of the town was sanctioned in the late forties and since then the town has slowly been electrified. The main thoroughfares of the town have already been electrified. A water-supply scheme through pipe was also sanctioned in November, 1954, the estimated cost of which is Rs. 11,54,000. Two water towers have already been constructed and one more is to be constructed. Half the amount of water-supply scheme has been met by the Government and the half amount has been given to the municipality as loan. The town is expected to get piped water-supply soon. There are also several tube-wells sunk by the municipality to supply drinking water to the citizen.

The municipality has passed through many vicissitudes. In 1930 the municipality suffered a severe blow in the loss of its office buildings and most of the collection registers by fire. This fire occurred at the time of audit and was due to deliberate incendiarism and consequently the municipality found it impossible to collect a large proportion of arrears. The office buildings of the municipality have not been rebuilt since 1930 and at present it is being held in a temporary structure which was built after the earthquake of 1934. Then there was the disastrous earthquake of 1934 and many changes occurred in the old town. All the Government offices, including the courts, were shifted to a distance of two miles where later a Notified Area Committee was constituted, a description of which will be given later.

The total population of the municipal area, according to the census of 1951, is 24,489 as against 17,545 in 1931. The percentage of rate-payers to the total population is 16.00 as against 13.8 in 1931 and 12.6 in 1901. The average incidence of tax per head of population is Rs. 3-5-9 as against annas 11-10 in 1907. The taxation of the municipality mainly consists of holding tax and latrine tax at the rate of 10 and 7½ per cent, respectively, of the annual value.

Income.—The average annual income of the municipality was from 1895 to 1900 Rs. 16,200, from 1900 to 1905 Rs. 20,400 and in 1905-06 Rs. 24,000.

In 1930-31 the total income of the municipality was Rs. 37,157, the main sources being holding tax at the rate of 5½ per cent of the annual value (Rs. 18,036), tax on animals and vehicles (Rs. 1,122), conservancy tax at the rate of 4 per cent of the annual value (Rs. 6,991), markets and slaughter houses (Rs. 3,573), grants from the Government (Rs. 5,489).

The average receipts of the municipality during the quinquennium ending in 1955-56 was Rs. 4,34,731, of which municipal taxes accounted for Rs. 72,767; fees and licenses for Rs. 12,012; power apart from taxation for Rs. 11,999; Government grants for Rs. 1,91,158; loans for Rs. 1,15,400; advances for Rs. 20,466; deposits for Rs. 5,649; and miscellaneous for Rs. 4,983.

It will be seen that there has been a tremendous increase in almost all the items of receipts as compared to 1930-31. Receipt under municipal taxes has swelled up chiefly because of increased trade and population as will be evident from the increase in population within the municipal limits as well as from the increase in the ratio of tax-payers to the total population. Government grants have increased mainly to finance some of the projects taken up by the municipality such as construction of water towers (although it is being executed by Public Works Department), repairing of roads, etc. Similarly prior to 1954-55 the municipality had no loan, but in 1954-55 and 1955-56 it had to incur a huge loan to finance its projects.

In 1956-57 the total receipts of the municipality amounted to Rs. 2,50,153 of which municipal taxes were responsible for Rs. 86,308; license and fees for Rs. 15,305; power apart from taxation for Rs. 6,007; Government grants for Rs. 93,638; miscellaneous for Rs. 5,929; loans for Rs. 5,300; advances for Rs. 29,843; and deposits for Rs. 7,804.

The total receipts in 1956-57 were considerably less as compared to the average receipt during the quinquennium 1951-52 to 1955-56 and the chief items showing heavy drop were Government grants and loans, the reason for which could be ascribed to the stoppage of grant for the projected scheme of water-supply.

Expenditure.—In 1905-06 the total expenditure of the municipality was Rs. 24,000, of which medical relief, public works, and conservancy accounted for 37, 14.1 and 12.6 per cent, respectively.

In 1930-31 the total expenditure of the municipality was Rs. 34,502, excluding advances, etc., and the main heads of expenditure were general administration, office establishment, etc. (Rs. 1,693), collection of taxes (Rs. 1,692), lighting (Rs. 2,389), other establishment charges (Rs. 892), drainage repairs (Rs. 610), latrines (Rs. 5,827), road cleaning (Rs. 5,700), medical (Rs. 2,600), and building repairs, road repairs, stores, education, etc., accounted for the rest.

The average total expenditure of the municipality during the quinquennium ending in 1955-56 was Rs. 4,38,999, of which general administration accounted for Rs. 17,025; public safety for Rs. 6,500; public health for Rs. 3,02,122; medical for Rs. 4,703; public convenience for Rs. 32,862; public instructions for Rs. 41,739; miscellaneous for Rs. 10,379; loan payment for Rs. 1,581; advances for Rs. 16,438 and deposit for Rs. 5,249.

It will be seen that the average expenditure of the municipality during 1951-52 to 1955-56 has considerably gone up as compared to the total expenditure in 1931-32. Many of the factors responsible for increased receipts were also responsible for increased expenditure.

In 1956-57 the total expenditure of the municipality was Rs. 2,40,838, of which general administration was responsible foi Rs. 19,099; public safety for Rs. 4,732; public health for Rs. 83,400; medical for Rs. 4,974; public convenience for Rs. 18,452; public instruction for Rs. 56,962; miscellaneous for Rs. 15,915; payment of loan for Rs. 1,356; advances for Rs. 29,933 and deposits Rs. 6,015.

It will be seen that the expenditure in 1956-57 was considerably less than the average quinquennium expenditure during 1951-52 to 1955-56. The drop was quite spectacular under the head public health, the reason being the completion of expenditure on the projected water-supply scheme.

Bettiah Municipality.

General.—The limits of the municipality extend over an area of 3½ square miles. The total population of the municipality according to the census of 1951, is 35,634 as against 27,941 in 1931 and 24,693 in 1901. The percentage of rate-payers is reported to be considerably less now than in 1901 and 1931, the percentage being 15.5, 20.1 and 21.0, respectively. This fall in the percentage of rate-payers is partly on account of the earthquake of 1934, when numerous buildings fell and partly on account of the fact that the rate-payers have not increased in the same proportion in which the population has increased. The municipality levies a holding tax and a latrine tax at the rate of 12½ and 7½ per cent, respectively, of the annual value. The tax on latrine is not levied in certain areas of the municipality, viz., Baswaria Tola, Mirja Tola, Chawani Jamadar Tola, Basant Tola, Ramnagari Tola and Hazari Tola. It also levies a tax on animals, vehicles, professions and trades.

The municipality helps manage, in one way or the other, altogether one Middle School, 9 Upper Primary Schools and 17 Lower Primary Schools.

The municipality altogether maintains 44½ miles of roads of which, 36½ miles are *pucca* and the rest are *katcha*. Besides, there are 29 roads of Bettiah Raj within the municipal limits, the length of which is not known. They have not been repaired since the ex-Bettiah estate has vested in the State and may be thoroughly repaired. They have not yet come under the control of the municipality. It has altogether 43 miles of drains, of which 31½ miles are *pucca* and 11½ miles are *katcha*.

Earlier the Bettiah Municipality was considered to be in a fortunate position on account of the ex-Bettiah estate which used to assist it greatly in the past by subscribing generously to all kinds of projects. This has now ceased since the said estate has vested in the State. The municipality now only gets the amount of holding and latrine taxes levied on the buildings of the ex-estate, in the collection of which the municipality has no difficulty. Since the last 20 to 25 years there has been a stupendous increase in the vehicular traffic and the modern petrol-fed vehicles with heavy tonnage are seen running on the roads day in and day out and tell heavily upon the condition of roads. Incidentally, it is interesting to note that the Bettiah railway station is probably the biggest sugarcane loading station in India and has 5 weigh-bridges of different sugar mills. Transportation of sugarcane from field to the station causes a great damage to the roads. Some of the roads under the municipality have been repaired recently out of the funds made over to the municipality under the First and Second Five-Year Plans.

The drainage system in the municipal area cannot be said to be satisfactory and it now presents a very insanitary picture.. All the drains need reorientation as they are too narrow and congested to drain off the entire waste fluids of the municipal area. Congested drains have proved to be the breeding ground for mosquitoes, Some of the drains and culverts have been repaired and reconstructed recently. A water-supply scheme is being executed within the municipal limits of Bettiah by the Public Health Department of the State Government.

Income.—The average annual income of the municipality was from 1895 to 1900 Rs. 16,000, from 1900 to 1905 Rs. 21,600 and in 1905-06 Rs. 25,000. The incidence of tax per head of population was annas 12 in 1905-06.

In 1930-31 the total income of the municipality was Rs. 53,647 of which the main items were tax on holdings at the rate of 7½ per cent on the annual value of holdings (Rs. 26,463), conservancy tax at 3¾ per cent on the annual value of holdings (Rs. 10,402), tax on animals and vehicles (Rs. 4,235), pounds (Rs. 1,182), fees, educational (Rs. 1,235), markets and slaughter houses (Rs. 3,442), Government grants, educational (Rs. 2,916), grants from other sources, general (Rs. 788) and medical (Rs. 537). The incidence of tax per head of population was Re. 1-3-11 in 1930-31.

In 1951-52 the total receipts of the municipality amounted to Rs. 1,93,295 of which Rs. 76,059 was realised from various fees and taxes, Rs. 5,654 from property and powers. Apart from taxation, Rs. 78,112 from Government grants, Rs. 1,880 from miscellaneous sources, Rs. 16,000 as loan from the Government, Rs. 15,530 from extraordinary advances and deposits.

The reasons for the increase in receipt as compared to 1930-31 are many, the chief being the increase in the rate of taxation, increase in population, increase in Government grants, etc.

The average annual receipt of the municipality from 1953-54 to 1956-57 was Rs. 4,53,897, of which municipal taxes accounted for Rs. 1,04,153, revenue from properties and powers apart from taxation for Rs. 10,558, Government grants and contributions for Rs. 1,88,539, miscellaneous sources for Rs. 2,625 and extraordinary debts for Rs. 1,47,022. The increase as compared to 1950-51 was chiefly because of increased Government grants for special purposes, that is, for repairing roads and also because of a very huge amount of extraordinary debt (Rs. 4,56,610) in 1955-56. The incidence of tax per head of population in 1956-57 was Rs. 2-7-1.

Expenditure.—In 1905-06 the total expenditure of the municipality was Rs. 24,400, the principal items being conservancy, public works and medical relief which accounted for 24.9, 21.9 and 28.5 per cent, respectively, of the total disbursements.

In 1930-31 the total expenditure, excluding advance and deposits, was Rs. 54,738 and the main items of expenditure were general administration and office establishment (Rs. 1,295), collection charges (Rs. 2,094), lighting (Rs. 4,506), drainage repairs (Rs. 2,544), water-supply repairs (Rs. 1,064), latrines (Rs. 11,480), roads cleaning (Rs. 10,011), markets and slaughter houses (Rs. 2,948), road repairs (Rs. 6,714), schools (Rs. 6,716) and contributions for public instruction (Rs. 1,469).

The total expenditure in 1951-52 excluding advances and deposits amounted to Rs. 1,29,054, of which general administration accounted for Rs. 2,384, collection charges for Rs. 7,873, fire for Rs. 57, lighting for Rs. 2,794, epidemics for Rs. 362, vaccination for Rs. 567, drainage for Rs. 210, water-supply for Rs. 85, latrines for Rs. 40,818, road watering for Rs. 314, road cleaning for Rs. 27,950, markets and slaughter houses for Rs. 1,388, medical for Rs. 120, veterinary charges for Rs. 178, public works for Rs. 22,697, public instruction for Rs. 20,170 and miscellaneous for Rs. 1,087.

During 1953-54 to 1956-57 the average annual expenditure amounted to Rs. 4,34,215, of which general administration and collection charges accounted for Rs. 14,409, public safety for Rs. 10,609, public health for Rs. 85,672, medical for Rs. 730, public convenience for Rs. 41,825, public instruction for Rs. 30,382, miscellaneous for Rs. 7,327 and extraordinary debts for Rs. 2,43,263. The amount of expenditure was considerably swelled up on account of payment of huge extraordinary debts in 1956-57, which amounted to Rs. 8,68,610.

Town Planning and Public Health.

The two old towns of the district are Motihari and Bettiah and they have slowly urbanised themselves without any pre-planning. Even now there is no regular town planning scheme before the municipal authorities. The municipalities do not control the construction of new houses but permissions are given liberally and there is hardly any attempt to align houses of proper and similar design in one locality. Although the municipalities have got the authority to pull down old and damaged buildings, this action is very seldom taken. Slum areas have been allowed to grow without any restriction. The bazars at both these places are very much congested with extremely bad arrangement for drainage or sewerage and the condition of the roads is also poor. Both the towns are expanding and the vegetable belt areas or the slum areas at the fringes are being pushed back.

In 1934 the Great Bihar Earthquake caused serious damages to the town of Motihari. As mentioned elsewhere Motihari is within the zone very vulnerable to earthquakes. There were Expert Committees which had given their considered opinions that the town of Motihari may be liable to earthquakes in future and that large constructions within the municipal limits of Motihari should be controlled. One of the recommendations was that there should be no big building by the side of the lake at Motihari town. Engineering researches have since progressed and probably that is the reason why there are now large buildings in that area built after the earthquake.

As a large number of Government buildings were extensively damaged it was felt that the administrative headquarters should be shifted to a more open space. It was decided to have a new township close to the old town of Motihari in the area locally known as Begampur. There was a proper investigation regarding availability of water, suitability of site, etc., before the lands were acquired and then a large number of Government buildings were constructed. A very large area was available and it was much easier to lay down a proper scheme for urbanisation of a plan, leaving ample spaces for lawn, roads, parks, etc. This area is now controlled by Lautaha Notified Area Committee and has become a part of Motihari town. A separate section has been given for Lautaha Notified Area Committee.

This is the only instance of planned urbanisation in this district. The very large oval shaped lawn and the wide termacadamised broad roads with a good arboriculture consisting of species like Gold Mohar, *Amaltas,* Kusum, Mango, etc., indicate forethought and asthetic sense. It is unfortunate that the excellent opportunity afforded by the Great Earthquake was not utilised for making the town of Bettiah cleaner or to build up a new satellite area. It may, however, be said that the new houses of the more affluent persons are re-inforced buildings of modern design.

Public health is the responsibility of the State and the bodies like the District Boards and Municipalities. The measures taken for maintenance of a proper level of public health have been covered in this chapter separately and also in the chapter on Medical and Public Health Services. It may be mentioned briefly that the rapid increase in population is a problem that complicates the responsibility of maintaining a certain standard of public health measures. Fortunately the people are becoming more responsive and appreciate the steps taken by State in this direction. Many of the epidemics like plague, cholera and pox have now been controlled. The use of antibiotics has become quite common and the expectation of life has gone up. In February, 1959, there was an investigation by a panel of doctors from Delhi at the instance of the Indian Council of Medical Research for looking into the cases of the high incidence of goitre near Bettiah. It is understood that they had a wide response and were able to collect specimens of blood, urine, etc., from the affected villages near Bettiah as well as from some places in a control area.

Luataha Notified Area Committee.

The ravages of the earthquake of 1934 caused great damage to the Government buildings. The earthquake was followed by an enquiry by some experts who condemned the old site of the collectorate as well as the area in the vicinity of Motihari lake. Consequently a new area for Government offices and officials residence was acquired at a distance of about three miles from the Motihari main market and Motihari railway station.

Luataha is the healthiest and most elegant part of Motihari urban area. The area is marked by a beautiful circular *maidan* encircled by a road with a selective arboriculture, along side which stand officers' residential quarters. There are as many as 18 (eighteen) quarters for officers and 117 (one hundred and seventeen) for ministerial staff. None of the other district towns of North Bihar is so fortunate in having such cleanly and specially built residential quarters. Besides, the Collectorate, Civil Court, Judge's Court, Police office, Police line and most of the other Government offices are situated within this area.

The Notified Area Committee came into existence with the opening of the Collectorate in the new buildings at Luataha on 3rd November 1936. On the proposal of the District Magistrate, the Government granted a sum of Rs. 3,000 for the establishment of the Notified Area Committee. The Committee was then put in charge of a Deputy Magistrate and Collector with 14 sweepers, one feeder, one zamadar and one part-time Sanitary Inspector.

The area afterwards was brought under the administrative control, vide Government notification no. 652-L.S.-G., dated the 11th February 1937, which was subsequently amended by Government notification no. 6093-L.S.-G., dated the 3rd November 1938, and a regular committee was constituted to carry out the purposes of Municipal Act with Executive Engineer, Public Works Department as *ex-officio* Secretary. The Executive Engineer subsequently submitted his resignation and thenceforward the Subdivisional Officer, Sadar is acting as the *ex-officio* Secretary. The District Magistrate is the *ex-officio* Chairman and the Civil Surgeon and Subdivisional Officer, Public Works Department, are *ex-officio* members. Besides, there are three non-official members on the Committee.

The total area of the Committee extends over 0.89 square miles. The population of the Committee, according to the census of 1951, is 1,417, out of which 182 were tax-payers in 1956-57.

The Committee owns 1,350 feet of roads out of which 935 feet have recently been made *pucca* and the rest are *katcha*. Besides, 5 miles 3 furlongs and 104 feet of roads belonging to the Public Works Department are cleaned by the staff of the Notified Area Committee, although their maintenance is entirely in the hands of the Public Works Department. The area has a water-supply system through pipe and is also well-served with electricity. The Committee has no office building of its own and has its office in the local Collectorate buildings.

There is an upper primary school maintained by the committee.

The main sources of income of the committee are the holding tax at the rate of 12½ per cent, latrine tax at the rate of 5½ per cent of the annual value of holding and Government grants.

The average annual income of the committee during the quinquennium ending in 1956-57 was Rs. 20,067, of which holding tax accounted for Rs. 12,060, latrine tax for Rs. 3,588, license fee for dangerous trade for Rs. 6, sale of property for Rs. 10, conservancy receipts for Rs. 80, fees for market, etc., for Rs. 5, and Government grant for Rs. 4,319.

The average annual expenditure of the Committee during the same period was Rs. 19,614, the items being general administration (Rs. 2,622), public health (Rs. 11,828), medical (Rs. 456), public conveyances (Rs. 2,690), public instruction (Rs. 1,541), miscellaneous (Rs. 178) and depreciation fund (Rs. 300).

Gram Panchayats.

The Bihar Panchayat Raj Act, 1947 received the assent of the Governor-General on 12th January 1948. The Act was enforced in the district of Champaran with effect from 1st July 1948, vide Government notification no. 129-L.S.-G.R., dated the 11th June 1948. At the first instance, to experiment the scheme the Government of Bihar set a programme to implement the Act in 25 villages in each civil subdivision. At first in the district of Champaran actually 26 Gram Panchayats were constituted which began functioning officially with effect from 8th April 1950.

The establishment of the institution of Gram Panchayat was felt a necessity to restore the institution of Local Self-Government in villages and to organise and improve the social, cultural and economic life of the village community. The idea to decentralise the administration has also been an important factor responsible for the establishment of Gram Panchayats.

The Gram Panchayats have many duties to perform. It deals with both the aspects of public administration, namely, the executive and the judiciary and consists of a number of *panches,* one *Sarpanch,* a *Mukhiya* and a Gram Sevak all being elected personnel, excepting the last named who is a Government servant. The Gram Sevak occupies a key position in the Gram Panchayat, although his duty is that of a mere clerk in the office. A village volunteer force is also maintained by each Gram Panchayat under a chief officer, who is selected from amongst the members of the force and sent up for training. He is ordinarily an honorary officer, although certain Gram Panchayats give him a small salary. This village volunteer force is required to perform the following duties :—

(1) Prevention of commission of crime.

(2) Protection of life and properties.

(3) Suppression of disorders.

(4) Reporting and checking of rumours likely to disturb peace.

(5) Fighting fire, famine and epidemics.

(6) Rendering first aid and helping in the removal of casualties to the hospital.

(7) Organising and regulating *melas,* markets and *hats.*

(8) Serving notices and summons and execution of the orders of *Mukhiya* and *Sarpanch.*

(9) Collecting statistics of all kinds.

(10) Discharging any function that may be assigned to them by the Panchayat or the Government for carrying out the purposes of the Act and Rules made thereunder.

In order to qualify itself for official notification a Gram Panchayat is required to do certain amount of constructive work such as improvement of village communication, repair and construction of irrigational sources, construction of wells, bore-hole latrines, introduction of drainage system, mass literacy, etc. Even after being notified as an official Gram Panchayat the main constructive functions of a Gram Panchayat remain the same.

So far the district of Champaran is concerned, 597 notified Gram Panchayats had been established till the *middle* of 1957. They covered altogether 2,470 villages and a population of 23,72,562 souls. Out of these 597 Panchayats, general election had been held in 560 Panchayats. There is a scheme to have two Gram Panchayats in each revenue *halka.* With the implementation of this scheme there will be altogether 677 Gram Panchayats in the district. There were altogether 500 trained chief officers in the district and the number of village volunteers enrolled was 2,38,800.

As has already been mentioned earlier, these Gram Panchayats have already covered some of the Union Boards which have been abolished, and the remaining ones are expected to be abolished soon.

It is reported that till 1955-56 the Gram Panchayats in the district had constructed and repaired several hundred miles of roads and had constructed and repaired hundreds of culverts, *pynes, ahars,* tanks, wells, latrines, etc. Gram Panchayats also took part in vaccination, inoculation and giving first aid and education (Primary).

As regards judicial functions, the Gram Katcheries are vested with the statutory power of a third class magistrate. The first batch of 26 Gram Katcheries started functioning since 8th April, 1950 and by the middle of 1957 there were 560 Gram Katcheries functioning in the district. A statement of cases, civil and criminal both dealt with by the Gram Panchayats from 1951-52 to 1956-57 is given at the end of this chapter as Appendix " B ".

So far the financial aspect of the Gram Panchayats is concerned, they are vested with the statutory powers to raise local funds such as labour tax, property tax, etc., for their own benefit. As a rule Government does not give any financial help to the Gram Panchayats excepting an initial help of Rs. 50. However, Gram Panchayats are helped in several ways by the Government as a certain portion of revenue collected as commission for the benefit of the Gram Panchayats. Sometimes contracts for the construction of projected embankments are given to the *Mukhiyas* on the condition that they would pay certain percentage of a total cost to the Gram Panchayat as profit. Besides, the Gram Panchayats get schemes for execution from the Development Department, in respect of which 50 per cent cost is met by the Panchayat itself. A statement is given below to show the receipts of Gram Panchayats in the district from 1951-52 to 1956-57 :—

Year.	Income from labour tax.	Income from property tax, fees, donations.
	Rs.	Rs.
1951-52	88,664	8,898
1952-53	2,15,117	18,784
1953-54	4,07,885	66,426
1954-55	3,20,303	47,919
1955-56	4,30,469	46,829
1956-57	4,09,186	60,991

All the amounts have been spent over different rural development schemes of different Gram Panchayats.

The establishment of the Gram Panchayat Administration at the district level is under a gazetted officer of the rank of Sub-Deputy Collector who is designated as the District Gram Panchayat Officer. Besides, there are 12 Panchayat Supervisors, one Head Instructor, two Second Instructors and seven ministerial officers. The supervisors supervise the work of Gram Panchayats and are placed over the Gram Sevaks. The Instructors are to train the village volunteer force.

A statement of expenditure over Gram Panchayat establishment is given below :—

Year.	Pay of Officer.	Pay of Establishment.	Cost of living allowance.	Travelling allowance.	Contingencies.	Grants-in-aid.	Cost of training of Gram Sevaks.	Miscellaneous grants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1951-52 ..	2,520 0 0	90,176 1 0	3,410 8 0	6,160 12 0	2,005 2 6	3,800 0 0	21,113 13 0	..
1952-53 ..	2,632 15 0	1,34,028 8 0	3,415 0 0	4,709 5 0	1,950 0 0	5,200 0 0	34,676 10 0	2,000 0 0
1953-54 ..	2,887 0 0	1,74,257 3 0	5,324 10 0	7,620 3 0	2,446 0 0	3,650 0 0	54,250 7 0	..
1954-55 ..	3,019 6 0	2,07,135 13 0	7,142 13 0	10,954 9 0	2,867 10 6	3,000 0 0	..	..
1955-56 ..	4,614 8 0	2,67,816 4 0	7,055 7 0	18,981 4 0	14,406 12 9	7,950 0 0	.. *	125 0 0
1956-57 ..	3,100 0 0	2,86,979 4 0	7,235 2 0	13,790 3 0	4,522 6 0	Nil	..	..

*As no training camp was organised since 1954-55 no expenditure on the training was incurred.

APPENDIX A.

List of Dak and Inspection Bungalows maintained by the District Board.

Name of bungalows.	Distance from the district headquarters.
	Miles.
(1) Motihari Dak Bungalow	1
(2) Bettiah Dak Bungalow	31
(3) Bagaha Inspection Bungalow	67
(4) Ramnagar Inspection Bungalow ..	59
(5) Narkatiaganj Inspection Bungalow ..	55
(6) Sumeswar Inspection Bungalow ..	78
(7) Mainatand Inspection Bungalow ..	56
(8) Lauriya Inspection Bungalow	46
(9) Semri Inspection Bungalow	47
(10) Raxaul Inspection Bungalow	31
(11) Sugauli Inspection Bungalow	15
(12) Arreraj Inspection Bungalow	18
(13) Barharwa Inspection Bungalow ..	25
(14) Madhuban Inspection Bungalow ..	23
(15) Dhaka Inspection Bungalow	17
(16) Ghorasahan Inspection Bungalow ..	22
(17) Mehsi Inspection Bungalow	27
(18) Kessariya Inspection Bungalow ..	24

APPENDIX B.

Statement of Civil and Criminal Cases dealt with by Gram Panchayats.

Year.	No. of cases pending from previous years and instituted during the year.	Compromised.	Dismissed.	Convicted.	Pending.
1	2	3	4	5	6
		Criminal cases.			
1951-52 ..	4,072*	1,928	462	663	1,019
1952-53 ..	1,883	933	240	285	425
1953-54 ..	5,609	2,788	956	796	1,069
1954-55 ..	8,152	3,659	2,811	620	1,062
1955-56 ..	9,106	4,806	2,026	875	1,399
1956-57 ..	11,172	5,702	2,389	1,283	1,798
		Civil Suits decreed.			
1951-52 ..	732*	261	51	250	170
1952-53 ..	458	207	50	131	70
1953-54 ..	1,510	587	96	354	473
1954-55 ..	2,121	646	292	840	343
1955-56 ..	2,307	948	295	658	406
1956-57 ..	2,588	725	397	811	655

*Separate figures of previous years' pending cases are not available.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

HISTORY.

In 1866, when Champaran was created a separate district, education was in a very backward condition. In 1870-71 there were only two schools under Government inspection, attended by 51 pupils and almost entirely supported by a Government grant. Within the next two years there was a great development owing to the introduction of Sir George Campbell's scheme for the advancement of vernacular education. Under this scheme the grant-in-aid rules were extended to village *pathshalas*. By 1872-73 there were 72 schools maintained or aided by Government, attended by 1,121 pupils, besides 6 unaided schools with 101 pupils. Considerable difficulties were, however, experienced in the extension of primary education owing to the prejudices of the people, an idea of which may be gathered from a report of that year regarding the progress made in Bettiah subdivision. " In this subdivision ", it was mentioned, " only 5 original *pathshalas* were discovered; and the Assistant Magistrate reports that he has had the greatest difficulty in inducing the people to send their children to the new schools and in obtaining qualified *gurus*. Anything like systematic education is quite unknown in these parts; and the new system has not only not been viewed with favour by the people, but has been passively resisted as much as possible. The *patwari* class oppose it, especially because they fear that an extended system of education will afford too great facilities to aspirants for the particular business. The zamindar class has also failed to give that assistance which in other and more enlightened districts has been willingly afforded. This arises very much from the fact that there are very few resident members of this class, who are themselves sufficiently intelligent to comprehend the utility of an extended system of education among the masses, and to take an active interest in its promotion ".

During the next 20 years progress was rapid and sustained and in 1892-93 there were 1,036 schools with 21,803 pupils. In the course of the next 10 years there was a falling off in the number both of schools and pupils, the former coming down in 1901-02 to 810 and the latter to 19,974. This was due largely to the famine of 1896-97. The number of educational institutions in that year fell to 773 from 1,136 in 1895-96 and the aggregate scholars to 17,696 from 25,723. The quinquennium ending in March, 1907 did not witness any recovery in consequence of a series of bad years in which epidemics were prevalent and crops were inadequate. The number of educational institutions on the 31st March 1907 was 798 and the number of pupils was 17,770.

During the next year there was considerable recovery, the figures rising to 943 institutions with 21,268 pupils. There was a further expansion in 1913 to 1915, the figures rising from 1,065 institutions with 25,566 pupils in 1912-13 to 1,138 institutions with 27,513 pupils in 1914-15.

The progress of education suffered a set back in 1921-22 owing to the Non-Co-operation Movement. At the end of 1921-22 the number of the recognised institutions had fallen to 770 with 20,800 pupils and the unrecognised institutions were 189 with 5,205 pupils. This number included 100 "national schools" started by the non-co-operators with 3,336 pupils. There was a gradual recovery from the set back. Within a year the number of national schools had dwindled to 50. Expansion of recognised institutions continued till 1926-27 when the number of schools reached 1,506 with 46,193 pupils. But again a slight decline was noticeable on account of financial reasons in 1930-31.

It may perhaps be noted here that in 1924 the District Board was reconstituted under the new Act as a mainly elected body with a non-official Chairman. From that year till 1930 Congress influence predominated in the District Board as also in the Board's schools. Consequently the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1930 was not directed against the recognised institutions and no new national schools sprang up, although the cause of education did suffer on account of the active participation of the scholars and teachers in the political struggle.

The decade 1930-31 to 1940-41 was a bad spell due to economic depression and not much progress was possible in the field of education along with the other departments. In the first half of the decade the effect was more severe and the number of schools and scholars had declined. The latter half of the period witnessed some recovery and in 1940-41 the number of educational institutions was 1,175 with 54,395 students.

The next decade 1940-41 to 1950-51 was, however, a period of progress. In 1950-51 the number of institutions was 1,244 and the number of scholars was 70,569. During the period 1950-51 to 1956-57 there has been a rapid development in the field of education. The total number of schools on the 31st March, 1957 was 1,966 with 1,24,156 scholars on the rolls.

It has to be mentioned that there is free and compulsory primary education in the Brindaban area of basic education as well as in the area of Motihari Municipality.

Apart from the progress in Education through the conventional line of teaching, there has also been a good deal of progress in other spheres of education, viz., basic education and social education. A good number of basic schools and social education centres are now functioning in the district. The system of basic education was introduced in the district as early as in 1939 on an experimental basis in the Brindaban area. It is interesting to note that this district was the first in Bihar to have the experiment of basic education. This type of education has in a way revolutionised the very concept of education and has been the cause in introducing a fundamental change in the curriculum of syllabus. Crafts, agriculture, manual work and physical training find an important place in the syllabus. Extra curricular activities are given prominence. Tree plantation movement, village uplift work, co-operative work, etc., also find place.

The scheme for basic education was taken up in the district in 1939. Ever since, the system of basic education has been expanding in the district. In 1950-51 there were 18 senior basic schools including one senior girls' basic school, 11 junior basic schools, one basic training school and one post-basic school in the Brindaban area. Besides there were many more such schools functioning in other parts of the district. The number of students in the Brindaban area was 2,743 and the number of teachers was 156.

A comprehensive rural uplift programme is sought to be executed through basic schools and social education centres. This programme consists of (1) rural cleanliness, (2) social uplift work, (3) demonstrations of the scientific agricultural and cottage industries development, (4) processes showing how science may be correlated to these operations with marked success, (5) disinfection of wells, (6) providing social recreation to the communities and (7) developing their aesthetic faculties, (8) utilisation of compost pits, urinals and trench latrines and (9) relief work through *khadi* production. The total number of all types of basic schools in the district on the 31st March, 1957 was 209 with 14,317 scholars on the rolls. Figures of basic education up to 1950-51 have also been included in the figures given for conventional education.

So far social education is concerned, originally it was started as a mass literacy drive in 1939. The Mass Literacy Campaign and Adult Education Drive have come to be known as the social education scheme. The aims and objects of this scheme of education are not only more spread of literacy but an all round progress and improvement of the mass for their general uplift and also to make the people good citizens. During 1950-51 there were 124 sub-centres of social education functioning in the district and covered 10,773 persons. In 1956-57 the number of sub-centres of social education was 477 which imparted education to 12,741 persons. Of the total number of education centres, 10 centres with 399 scholars were for females. As compared to the statistics of 1951-52 the number of institutions has gone up by about four times, but the number of scholars has not shown a similar tendency. It is reported that many of the centres have been newly opened, specially in the new Blocks, and they have not yet caught the imagination of the people of the locality concerned. This type of educational activity is bound to increase with the increase in the number of Community Development Projects and National Extension Service Blocks.

It may be noted that there have been certain important changes in the field of education in recent years in the State and Champaran has not been an exception. Firstly the distinction of Middle English School and Middle Vernacular School has been abolished with the abolition of English teaching at the Middle School standard since 1949. Secondly, all the District Boards have been absolved of their responsibility to impart education and this task has been taken over by the State. This scheme has been implemented in this district since May, 1954. There has also been another change in the field of secondary education. The High Schools are expected to teach up to the first year standard of Intermediate classes and the colleges are to have only three years' degree course. The schools which are to impart education up to first year class are to be known as Higher Secondary Schools.

LITERACY AND ITS GROWTH.

As regards the spread of literacy the table below indicates the progress since 1911 :—

Census year.		Total population.		Total literacy.		Male literacy.	
		District.	State.	District.	State.	District.	State.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1911	..	19,08,385	2,94,97,592	49,767	11,28,814	47,610	10,70,119
1921	..	19,40,841	2,91,77,296	59,013	12,70,080	55,295	11,85,510
1931	..	21,45,687	3,25,56,239	62,360	13,50,203	57,869	12,44,693
1941	..	23,97,569	3,65,28,119	1,41,909	33,39,744	1,26,564	29,39,194
1951	..	25,15,343	4,02,25,947	2,11,381	..	1,86,599	..

Census year.		Female literacy.		Literacy per thousand of–					
				Total population.		Male population		Female population.	
		District.	State.	District.	State.	District.	State.	District.	State.
1		8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1911	..	2,157	58,695	26.1	37.2	50.5	74.0	2.2	3,9
1921	..	3,718	84,570	30.4	43.1	57.0	81.9	3.8	5.8
1931	..	4,491	1,05,510	29.0	41.5	53.5	76.2	4.2	6.5
1941	..	15,345	4,00,550	–	–	–	–	..	..
1951	..	24,782	...	84.04	..	..	..	..	..

ORGANISATIONS OF EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

In 1891-92 the total number of aided primary schools was 698.

In 1906-07 there were 31 Upper Primary Schools for boys attended by 1,332 pupils and 645 Lower Primary Boys' Schools with an attendance of 13,420. Of the Upper Primary Schools two were maintained by Government 28 were aided by the District Board, and one was unaided. Of the Lower Primary Schools two were maintained by Government, 598 were aided by the District or Municipal Boards and 45 were unaided.

In the period 1906-07 to 1929-30 there was a rapid increase in the number of Primary Schools as well as of scholars. The number of institutions increased by nearly 100 per cent while that of scholars by nearly 250 per cent. In 1929-30 there were altogether 1,330 Primary Schools of which 1,269 were managed, aided and stipendiary and 61 were unaided. These schools were attended by 37,564 pupils. Of the total number of Primary Schools, the number of girls' school was 170 with 3,849 pupils.

During the next 20 years also there was considerable increase in the number of Primary Schools as well as in the number of scholars. In 1949-50 the total number of Primary Schools was 1,026 of which the number of managed, aided and stipendiary schools was 991 and the rest were unaided. The total number of scholars on the rolls was 49,445. Of the total number of Primary Schools the number of girls' schools was 106 with 2,921 pupils. As has already been stated above, a new type of educational institution cropped up in the district since 1939 and it was to impart the basic education. The Junior Basic Schools are equivalent to Primary Schools and apart from the number of Primary Schools there were 19 Junior Basic Schools in the district with 2,407 students in 1949-50.

The number of all the Primary Schools on the 31st March 1957 was 1,596 and that of Junior Basic Schools was 165 with 82,113 and 8,671 students, respectively. Of 1,596 Primary Schools, the number of Girls' Primary Schools was 277, which were attended by 15,738 students. The number of girl students in the Junior Basic Schools was 892.

It is unfortunate that girls' education is still at a very low incidence.

Secondary Education.

In 1907 there were altogether 11 Secondary Schools in the district which consisted of two High Schools, 7 Middle English Schools and 2 Middle Vernacular Schools. The number of boys in these schools was altogether 1,124, of which 463 students were reading in the two High Schools, 531 in all the 7 Middle English Schools and 130 in the 2 Middle Vernacular Schools. Of the two High Schools, one was Motihari Zila School and the other was Bettiah Raj School. The former was run by Government and the latter was an unaided institution. Of all the Middle English Schools, 2 were maintained by Government and the rest were recipients of grants-in-aid. Both the Middle Vernacular Schools were maintained by Government.

In 1929-30 there were altogether 44 secondary schools in the district, of which 6 were High Schools and 38 Middle Schools. The number of students reading in the High Schools was 1,124, whereas their number in the Middle Schools was 4,039. Of the High English Schools one, the Motihari Zila School, was managed by Government, two, the Heycock Academy and the Tirhut Vidyalaya at Mehsi, were aided; and three, the Mangal Seminary at Motihari, the Bettiah Raj High English School and the Christ Raja High English School, both at Bettiah, were unaided.

In the course of about two decades the number of High Schools had trebled while that of Middle Schools had multiplied by nearly six and a half times. The number of scholars had also more or less progressed although in respect of Middle Schools it was more uniform than that of High Schools. During the same period the expansion in respect of Primary Education, institutions and scholars both, was more marked than the secondary education and it could be said that in junior standards the pace of expansion in the number of institutions was trying to catch up the tempo of expansion in the number of students, while in respect of higher standard the case was just the reverse.

During the next 20 years progress in the field of secondary education was more or less sustained and in the year 1949-50 there were altogether 135 institutions for secondary education in the district. This was inclusive of the Post Basic and Senior Basic institutions. The total number of High Schools was 22, Post Basic 1, Middle Schools 75, Senior Basic Schools 18. The total number of scholars at the secondary standard was 18,717, of which 6,844 were in High Schools, 348 in Post-Basic Schools, 9,504 in Middle Schools and 2,021 in Senior Basic Schools. Of the total number of High Schools, all were either managed or aided. Among the Middle Schools the number of managed or aided was 71 and that of unaided was 4. So far the Basic institutions are concerned, almost all of them were either Government managed or recipient of grants-in-aid.

A comparison of figures with that of 1929-30 will show that the number of institutions as well as scholars has trebled during the period, the pace being more pronounced in respect of High Schools than Middle Schools.

It appears from the figures that progress during the period 1949-50 up to the 31st March 1957 was more than encouraging as compared to the previous figures. There were altogether 206 institutions for secondary education in the district on the 31st March, 1957, of which there were 40 High Schools, one Post-Basic School, 122 Middle Schools and 43 Senior-Basic Schools. The number of students in all these institutions was 1,24,156 of which 11,219 were in High Schools, 307 in Post-Basic Schools, 15,049 in Middle Schools and 5,339 in Senior-Basic Schools.

It has to be mentioned that on the same date the number of secondary institutions for girls education was 9, of which 2 were High Schools, 6 Middle Schools and 1 Senior-Basic School. The total number of girl students was 2,737 of which 1,027 were in High Schools, 1,339 in Middle Schools and 371 in Senior-Basic Schools. This number of institutions or girl-scholars, though progressive, cannot be said to be very encouraging.

College Education.

There were no colleges in the district till 1945, when Munshi Singh College at Motihari was started with Intermediate classes in Arts. Another College at Bettiah, known as Maharani Janki Kuar College, was opened in the year 1955. The number of students on the rolls in these two colleges in 1956-57 was 1,590, of which 1,235 were in Munshi Singh College and 345 in Maharani Janki Kuar College.

HISTORY OF IMPORTANT INSTITUTIONS.

Munsi Singh College, Motihari.

With a view to perpetuate the name of Sri Munshi Singh who was a zamindar of Garahia, Champaran, his younger brother donated a sum of Rs. 75,000 to open a college with Intermediate classes in Arts in 1945. Later in 1947 the ex-Bettiah estate donated a sum of Rs. 1,00,000 and granted a lease of 50 acres of land to the college. The college is getting grants-in-aid since 1949-50 and has also received two lump sum grants from the University, one of Rs. 1,00,000 in 1951 for science equipments and another of Rs. 85,000 in 1955-56 for expansion in Intermediate in Science and starting of Bachelor of Science classes. The old Jail Building of Motihari was made over to the college by the State Government on a temporary lease in 1950.

The college has been gradually expanding. The Bachelor of Arts classes were opened in 1948, Intermediate in Science in 1952, Honours classes in Arts in 1953 and Bachelor of Science classes in 1955. The institution is now a degree college in Arts and Science both affiliated to the Bihar University.

As has already been stated, the number of students on the rolls was 1,235 in 1956-57.

The college provides accommodation to 212 students in its hostel, which, however, is far below the demand.

The college has extensive playgrounds and is situated in the vicinity of Motihari Railway Station. There are a number of girl students in the college.

Maharani Janki Kuar College, Bettiah.

The college was originally started as Bettiah College with the help of a non-recurring grant of Rs. 1,30,000 from the State Government in the year 1955. Later it also received another grant of Rs. 50,000 from the State Government which was followed by a grant of Rs. 50,000 from the *Sradh* Fund of the late Maharani Janki Kuar of the ex-Bettiah Estate and was re-named as Maharani Janki Kuar College.

The college first started functioning in the building of the Raj High English School, Bettiah as it had no building of its own. Later in April, 1956 it was shifted to the building previously meant for the Manager of ex-Bettiah Estate on a rental value of Rs. 300 per month. The building has a spacious compound with out-houses, although the building itself is not quite sufficient for a college needs. The collage has no hostel building of its own.

The first affiliation to the college was given in I.A., I.Sc., and B.A. in 1955.

As already mentioned in 1957 the college had 345 students. There are a number of girl students in the college.

Motihari Zila School.

This school was established in 1869 at the instance of the Government and like all other High English Schools of the Bengal Presidency, was named as Zila School. Its early history is untraced. Till 1914, it occupied an ordinary building at the site of present Mina Bazar of Motihari town at the northern terminus of the lake road. It was for some time shifted to another place in order to make room for the construction of its new buildings, which it occupied in 1918. This building was damaged in the Great Earthquake of 1934. The school again had to be housed in its attached hostel. A new building was erected shortly after the Earthquake at a site far away from its old site, which it occupied in 1937. It is continuing in the same building. The locality where it stands now is known as Balua Bazar. The present site it occupies is a large compact area, measuring about 21 acres, and houses the school buildings, attached hostel, headmaster's quarters, servants' quarters and has a spacious playground as well.

The school had gained enough popularity, by 1918, when four upper classes were duplicated by creating an additional section to each a drawing class and a special class to teach only English to the students coming from Vernacular Middle Schools were opened. In 1924 a science class was opened.

For the examination purposes the school was linked with the Patna University in 1912 with the separation of Bihar from Bengal and continued to be so till 1952. At present its examinations are conducted by the Bihar Secondary School Examination Board. In 1925 for the first time, it was made a centre for Annual Matriculation Examination of the Patna University and that for the supplementary in 1946.

Since 1918, the school has produced more than 1,300 matriculates, its result being the best in 1954, when 88 candidates came out successful with a placing of 22 in first division. In 1939, a student of the school topped first in the Matriculation Examination of the Patna University.

The school has an organised National Cadet Corps, Auxiliary Cadet Corps and Scout Units. Games, in-door and out-door both, form a particular feature in this school.

The Khrist Raja High School, Bettiah.

The Khrist Raja High School at Bettiah was started in the year 1928 and is reputed for its standard of discipline, efficiency and good result. In 1931 it had 125 students and 13 teachers; in 1951, 423 students and 17 teachers and in 1957, 333 students and 17 teachers. The school is run by the Catholic Fathers who are devoted to their work. It is a model institution in various ways. The school has extensive grounds and is noted for games and other extra-curricular activities.

The Mangal Seminary, Motihari.

This school was started at Motihari in 1927 with two teachers and half a dozen students. In 1931 the number of teachers was 7, in 1941 it was 12 and at present there are 14 teachers. It has also made steady improvement in the numerical strength of students, the number being 100 in 1931, 253 in 1940 and 431 in 1956. The school is expanding. It was established by a well reputed business family of Motihari. The family takes an active interest in the welfare of the school.

Gopal Sah Vidyalaya, Motihari.

The school, originally named as Heycock Academy, was established in 1918. Its nomenclature was changed, into Gopal Sah Vidyalaya on the 14th December, 1947, after the name of its donor's father. In 1947, there were only four classes, from the eighth standard to the eleventh standard, with 80 pupils on the rolls. Since then the school has made very considerable progress. It has recently been raised to the status of Higher Secondary School. The present number of scholars (1958) on the rolls about seven hundred and that of teachers 22, which includes a Guidance Master, a Physical Instructor and a Social Instructor.

The school imparts education to boys and girls in Science, Commerce and Arts and has a laboratory of its own. The school is housed in a good building and has a hostel accommodation for 125 students. It has four playgrounds.

The affairs of the school is managed by a committee of management with the District Officer as its President.

Bettiah Raj H. E. School, Bettiah.

The Bettiah Raj High English School was started in the year 1906 by Mr. J. R. Lewis, the then Manager of the ex-Bettiah Raj and was recognised in 1909. It was a proprietary school of the Raj. In the beginning no fee was charged from the students. Till very late boys of Raj's tenants used to get some concession in respect of school fee. It continued to function in the same building in which it was started till 1943, when it was shifted to a new building where it is still continuing. The school vested in the State under the Land Reforms Act on the 26th January, 1955.

The teaching of science was introduced in the school in 1956. On the 31st March, 1958 there were 500 students in the roll. This is one of the High Schools in the district which has been selected to be raised to standard of Higher Secondary School.

St. Teresa's Girls' High School, Bettiah.

This school was started in 1894 by some Holy Cross Sisters of Switzerland to give basic education to children. In 1922 it was recognised as an Upper Primary School, in 1927 as a Middle English School and in 1936 the first High School class was added. In this year the Junior Women Training School (founded in 1923) was also transferred from Chuhari to St. Teresa's at Bettiah. In 1943 St. Teresa's was recognised as full-fledged recognised High School. It was the first Girls' High School in Champaran district.

The school had no good building till 1936-37 when it could construct the present main building of the school. In 1954 another pucca building was constructed with eight class rooms.

The school apart from other subjects also teaches science. Girls are also given training in sewing, tailoring, drawing, painting, embroidery and cooking.

The school has a very good hostel with accommodation for 80 students. The school is a well maintained institution in pleasant surroundings. It has also a good library.

In 1958 the number of students from classes I to XI and including the V. J. Teachers' Training Class was 750.

The institution is run by the Bettiah Holy Cross Sisters Society. It is a Government aided institution but deficits are met by loans from the Mission Fund.

Girls' High School, Motihari.

Maharani Janki Kuar Girls' High School was started in 1946. In 1938 a Girls' Middle English School had been started which was taken over by the Bettiah Raj and ultimately raised to the standard of a High school. In 1947 there were only 182 girls in the school whereas in 1958 the number is near about 400. Since 1949 this Girls' High School is presenting girls for Matriculation Examination. Besides the usual subjects in the curriculum there is provision for training students in cooking, sewing, physical training. The school has been provincialised and is now run by the State Government.

Balika Vidyalaya is another Girls' Institution at Bettiah teaching up to middle school standard.

The Catholic Missions run *St. Agnes Girls' Middle School* at Chuhari. These Middle Schools for girls are feeders to St. Teresa's Girls' High School at Bettiah.

Assemblies of God Girls' Middle School, Bettiah.

The school was started in 1924 and was recognised in 1929. The present enrolment is of 175 girls (1958). From the very beginning it started as a Middle English School and has continued to be so.

Professional and Technical Schools and Colleges.

There is no professional and technical college in the district, but there are a few schools. Among such schools mention could be made of three training schools for teachers, both males and females. They consist of Senior Training School at Kumarbagh, Junior Training School at Pakridayal and St. Teresa's Training Classes for Women at Bettiah.

The Senior Training School at Kumarbagh was established in the year 1946-47. The entire expenditure of this institution is met by the State Government. On the 31st March, 1958 the number of trainees on the roll was 118.

The Junior Training School at Pakridayal consists of two units, that is, one at Pakridayal and another at Dariapur. But both the units are under one and the same Headmaster at Pakridayal. There were 95 trainees on the roll on the 31st March, 1958.

The St. Teresa's Training Class for Women at Bettiah is run by the Christian Missionaries. This is the only institution of its kind in the district where female teachers can receive training. The total number of trainees on the roll of the school was 23 on the 31st March, 1958.

Besides the teachers' training schools, there are three technical schools in the district, viz., St. Rita's Knitting School at Bettiah, Government Agricultural School at Pipra, and Production-*cum*-Training Centre of industrial type at Lal Saraiya.

The St. Rita's Knitting School at Bettiah is a sufficiently old institution and its establishment dates back probably to early twenties of the present century. It imparts training to girls in knitting of hose, socks, sweater, etc. It is a Government subsidised institution run by the Christian missionaries. In 1957-58 there were 67 students receiving training at this institution. During the same year the total expenditure over this institution was Rs. 1,503, which also included the State Government's subsidy to the tune of Rs. 960.

The Government Agricultural School at Pipra was started in October, 1955 to impart one year's training to Village Level Workers of National Extension Service and Community Development Blocks. One year's training course has now been raised to two years' diploma course. In 1957-58 there were 103 students on the roll of the school.

The Production-*cum*-Training Centre at Lal Saraiya was opened in 1957-58 mainly to afford some industrial training facility to the rehabilitated displaced persons. It is run entirely at the cost of State Government. The total number of students on the roll in 1957-58 was 317. Trainees are getting free education. They also get a stipend of Rs. 15 per month. There are a few types of trades in which training is imparted such as black smithy, carpentry, toy making, rope making, leather work, weaving, calico printing, soap making, basket making and tailoring.

Schools for the cultivation of fine arts.

There is no school in the district for the cultivation of fine arts.

Oriental schools and colleges.

There is only one Government managed Sanskrit High School and 23 Sanskrit *tols* (1958). In these institutions altogether 945 boys and 40 girls received education. Importance is being attached to the teaching of Sanskrit in the High, Middle and Primary Schools as well.

Islamic Education.

There were six *Madarsas* (including one unrecognised) in the district in 1957-58. Altogether 423 students were reading in these Madarsas in the same year.

Education for the handicapped.

There is no institution in the district for imparting education for the handicapped.

Cultural, literacy and scientific societies.

There are no cultural, literary and scientific societies in the district excepting the Motihari and Bettiah branches of the Indian Medical Association affiliated to Bihar.

Cultural, literary and scientific periodicals.

Only two literary periodicals are published, viz., *Angar* and *Panchayat*. Both are in Hindi. *Angar* is said to have a circulation of 3,000 copies, whereas the *Panchayat* of 2,000 copies. The latter is a Government approved periodical.

LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, ETC.

There are altogether 172 Government aided libraries in Champaran. Out of these libraries, two are of some importance in the district. One of these two libraries is known as Sri Navayubak Pustakalaya and is situated at Motihari and the other is known as Maharaja Harendra Kishore Sarvjanic Pustakalaya at Bettiah. The former has been raised by the State Government to the status of Central library of the district.

The Maharaja Harendra Kishore Sarvjanic Pustakalaya, Bettiah.

This was established on the contribution from the ex-Bettiah Raj in the year 1905. Earlier it was known as Victoria Memorial Public Library. But in 1947 its name was changed into Maharaja Harendra Kishore Sarvjanic Pustakalaya. The original building of the library was razed to the ground in the earthquake of 1934. However, it could construct a new building later on with the contribution from the ex-Bettiah Raj. The library is situated in the same building since then. This building has two reading rooms, one for the periodicals and another for dailies. There is a game room as well apart from several other rooms to store books as well as to accommodate the office.

The library has a children's and a women's section. But these two sections have not yet got any separate building. The children's section is affiliated to the State Balkan-Ji-Bari as well as to the Central Social Welfare Board. This section has a membership of 102. Three hundred and fifteen books have been collected for this section and some eight periodicals are subscribed for children.

The library has a good garden, too.

By the end of 1957 the library had 6,405 books, of which 3,324 were Hindi books, 1,709 English books, 897 Bengali books and 475 Urdu books. In the same year the library subscribed to 9 dailies and 59 periodicals of Hindi and English languages. It had a membership of 435 persons in the same year. These members are required to subscribe a sum of rupee one per head per month.

CHAPTER XV.

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH.

General.

The district of Champaran is situated between 26°-16′ and 27°-31′ north latitude and between 83°-50′ and 85°-18′ east longitude. A considerable area of the district lies near the foot-hills in the north. As a matter of fact Nepal forms the boundary of the district throughout its span in the north and north-east. This bordering area is interspersed with ditches, rivulets, rivers, swamps, ravines, hills and forests. Out of the total area of 3,525 square miles of the district, forest occupies an area of 359 square miles. The forest belt lies between 27°-10′ to 27°-31′ north latitude and 83°-50′ to 84°-41′ east longitude. A considerable area of the district was comparatively inaccessible till late. The dampness of climate, the swamps and the extensive forest areas have their effect on health. Comparative inaccessibility in the past stood in the way of quick and cheap medical aid in the remote rural areas.

Although not much is known regarding the medicines and hospitals in the ancient days it may, however, be quite possible that during Asoka's rule Champaran had received close attention. Asoka is supposed to have travelled to Kusinara through Champaran and the Asoka's pillars in North Bihar suggest that the district had received close attention of the Buddhist king. Asoka's inscription on Rock Edict II refers to such an institution known as *Chikitsa.* Vaisali Bhikkhus of North Bihar had three *Glanshalas* where they received free treatment. A recent excavation at Kumrahar (old Patna City) has brought out a seal of *Vihar Arogyashala.* Fa-hien had mentioned Pataliputra having hospitals within the city where gratuitous medical help was given. This tradition had continued as also found by Hiuen-Tsiang. The Universities of Nalanda and Vikramsila in Bihar had *Chikitsa Vidya* or medical science as one of the subjects taught. From all this it may be guessed that this district along with other parts of Bihar had some provisions for medical aid.

During Muslim rule also provisions for medical aid appear to have continued. Champaran had a sizeable Muslim population and it is only expected that *Unani* system of medicine had its hold on Champaran during Muslim rule. Indian medicinal plants had attracted the attention of the early pharmacologists as mentioned by Alberuni (973—1048). Prof. A. H. Askari in a recent article in the Bihar Research Society Journal has referred to the progress of *Unani* system of medicine in India during the Muslim rule. Since the Muslim court patronised *Unani* system of medicine the Hindus also largely became adherent to this system of medicine. Various branches of medical lore such as pharmacy, surgery, physiology, etc., were practised. Unfortunately at a later stage a crude form of surgery (*Zarahi*) passed on to the barbers, quacks and bleeders (*Ragzans*). John Marshall in his journal edited by Sir Safaat Ahmad Khan had referred to a number of Hindu doctors at Patna. He has also mentioned the remedies of many ailments, such as dropsy, gout, stone, etc., prescribed by Hindu doctors of Patna in November, 1671. There could be no doubt that the influence of Patna had spread to Champaran as well.

There was another source for patronisation of hospitals and dispensaries. Indian administrators had always encouraged public institutions, such as, canals, wells, caravan *sarais,* mosques, schools, etc., and it could well be imagined that hospitals had also received their attention. Villages used to be endowed for the maintenance of such charitable hospitals and other institutions and people irrespective of caste or creed received attention in these institutions. The influence of Jains also encouraged the establishment of hospitals and dispensaries. In the early years of British administration in the different parts of Bihar rich people made endowments for such hospitals and dispensaries. In Champaran district the Raja of Bettiah had made provisions for medical aid since a long time past. The tradition was continued in the endowment of liberal trusts for the maintenance of some very fine hospitals at Bettiah and elsewhere.

In the past the district had a very high incidence of diseases like malaria, kala-azar, cholera, small-pox and plague. Goitre was also once quite common. We do not have any record of pre-British or of early British days which could throw light on the health condition of the people. But a study of the old English correspondence volumes (preserved in the Record Room of Motihari) pertaining to the second and third quarters of the nineteenth century gives the data that the district had frequent outbreaks of cholera, plague, small-pox, fever, etc. Medical institutions and professionals were few and far between. Local *Vaidyas* and *Hakims* with their indigenous medicines and surgery gave the only possible medical aid.

The present hygienic habits of the common man could not be said to be satisfactory. This is considerably controlled by his economic condition. Even their food habits lack considerably from the medical view point. Probably, the poverty of the common man stands in the way of balanced diet of the required calorific value. Their knowledge of the balanced diet and its beneficial effects is also very poor.

The daily menu of the common man seldom contain food substance of adequate protein value. The common man's principal items of food consist of rice or bread and some vegetables and occasionally a little pulse. Fish, meat, milk, *ghee,* butter and curd are not available to them regularly. They consume very little of fruits and that also what is very cheaply available during the season. Protein foods are mainly confined to the persons of upper income groups.

There has not been any proper nutritional survey in the district so that the actual adverse effect of ill-balanced and deficient food upon the health of common man could be indicated with some exactitude.

ORGANISATION.

The entire organization of Medical and Public Health at the district level may be divided into two parts, namely, medical organisation and public health organisation. The former is headed by the Civil Surgeon and the latter by the District Medical Officer of Health. The functions of both the officers are different, although in certain matters the District Medical Officer of Health is to act in consultation with the Civil Surgeon. A brief note on the duties and functions of these two officers is given below separately.

The Civil Surgeon, who is a member of the State Medical Service, is the Superintendent of all the hospitals and dispensaries in the district maintained by the District Board or the Government. He exercises complete professional control over the Medical Officers in the immediate charge of hospitals and dispensaries. The Civil Surgeon is an *ex-officio* member of the District Board Sanitation Committee and is appointed as Chairman of that Committee to have sufficient power to co-operate with the District Medical Officer of Health. He devises measures in consultation with the District Medical Officer of Health and the Chairman, District Board for the effective control of epidemics and also to co-ordinate the relief measures to be taken by the District Board's epidemic doctors, dispensary Medical Officers and the Medical Officers sent by the Health Department, specially to control epidemics. He inspects the work of the dispensary doctors maintained by District Board and advises the Board in all technical and other matters. He reports the cases of latches or mismanagement to the Government. The Civil Surgeon is expected to render every assistance to the District Board and the Board is expected to profit by his expert advice. He is also the clearing house for all information on medical and public health regarding the district. Apart from these, he is also the *ex-officio* President of the district branches of the Indian Medical Association. There are three branches of the Indian Medical Association in the district, first at Motihari (established in 1940), second at Bettiah (established in 1943), and the third at Raxaul. Bettiah commands a membership of 42 doctors, Motihari of 26 doctors and Raxaul of 17 doctors only. There are also other registered medical practitioners who are not members of the branches of the Medical Association.

The Civil Surgeon is also responsible for the enforcement of drug control measures and as such he can inspect any medical shop within the district and take steps for the prosecution defaulters. He is the authority to issue licenses for medical shops and also to cancel the same in case of non-observance of prescribed rules.

The Civil Surgeon exercises no administrative control over the Mission hospitals, but he could inspect them and these institutions welcome his expert advice.

Prior to 1930 the public health of the district was also the responsibility of the Civil Surgeon and it was only in 1930 that the Government deputed a Health Officer to work under the Champaran District Board. The Health Officer was also given some subordinate staff. The Health Officer is now called the District Medical Officer of Health and is a member of the State Medical Service. His services have been placed under the District Board and he is to give advice on technical matters concerning public health, such as control of epidemics, vaccination, sanitation, etc. He is also to supervise the work of the subordinate public health staff, viz., vaccinators, disinfectors, who are the employees of the District Board. His salary is paid by the Government, but travelling and other allowances are met by the District Board. His earned leave is granted by the Medical Directorate, but his casual leave by the Chairman of the District Board. In short he is under the dual control of the District Board as well as the Government.

As has already been stated above, the District Medical Officer of Health is to seek advice of the Civil Surgeon in every matter relating to public health and the latter is to report any case of default and mismanagement to the Government.

There has been a slight change in the organisational side of the medical and public health units. This change aimed at the amalgamation of medical and public health functions at the district level. A Government Circular no. IIA3-1-43 of 1958—139, dated the 3rd January 1959, mentioned that the posts of Civil Surgeons in the districts were converted into posts of Senior Executive Medical Officers and Civil Surgeons with the result that in these districts the Senior Executive Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon is responsible for the efficient implementation, supervision and control of all public health measures, preventive as well as curative. It is again mentioned that " With this circular in all the districts the Civil Surgeon assumed the new executive responsibility and has been given the designation of Senior Executive Medical Officer and Civil Surgeon. Higher above the district level there has been another change. According to the circular quoted above there would be four Divisional Headquarters of the State. These Regional Deputy Directors will now hold charge of the existing offices of the Assistant Directors of Public Health of the four Divisions and would be responsible for all functions of the Health Department, preventive as well as curative and would be delegated powers for arriving at quick decisions and exercising effective control over the large number of schemes which are being implemented under the Five-Year Plan.........." The change has been introduced with a view to accelerating the improvement schemes undertaken by the State in the field of medical and public health of the mass, and thus ensure a healthier and happier society in future.

HOSPITALS AND RURAL DISPENSARIES.

Hospitals and dispensaries in this district, according to the line of treatment followed, may be said to be mainly three, viz., Allopathic, Homeopathic and *Ayurvedic*. The number of allopathic dispensaries is by far the largest, then comes *Ayurvedic* and homeopathic occupies only the last position. There does not appear to be functioning any organized *Unani* dispensary in the district, excepting one in Bettiah, although this line of treatment is also pursued by a number of private practitioners. Apart from these, an absolutely local method of treatment is also followed by the people, which is probably the most degenerated form of *Ayurved*. This system is more or less in the hands of the quack and consists of antidotes and indigenous medicines not within the scope of pharmacopoeia. Then there are some individual practitioners who follow *Ayurvedic-cum-*allopathic line of treatment. Such practitioners are the outcome of effects to modernise *Ayurved*. There is also one naturopathic dispensary in the district at Brindaban, which is subsidised by the District Board.

There is a mention of a dispensary at Motihari in the old letter no. 1, dated the 2nd January 1864, Camp Kessaria, from F. M. Halliday, Esq., Officiating Magistrate, to the Commissioner of Circuit, Patna Division. In the same letter it is also noted that there was an effort being made to set up another dispensary at Bettiah as that was surrounded by an unhealthy climate.

There are altogether 50 Allopathic hospitals and dispensaries functioning in the district, out of which 19 are run by the Government, 27 by the District Board and 3 by the Christian Missionaries. The total number of hospitals with indoor arrangements maintained by all the abovementioned three agencies is 14. A list of hospitals, dispensaries and other medical institutions is given below as on 1st May, 1957 :—

Hospitals.

(A) Names of hospitals maintained by the Government—

Name.	Number of beds.	
(1) Sadar Hospital, Motihari ..	87	(64 for males and 23 for females).
(2) K. E. M. Hospital, Bettiah ..	120	(114 for males and 6 for females).

Name.		Number of beds.	
(3) M. J. K. Hospital, Bettiah	..	267	(all for females).
(4) Ramnagar State Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(5) Bagaha State Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(6) Narkatiaganj Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(7) Police Hospital, Motihari	..	10	(all for males).
(8) Gaunaha Static Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(9) Bettiah Refugee Camp Hospital.		20	(no bifurcation made so far).

(B) Names of hospitals maintained by the District Board—

Name.		Number of beds.	
(1) Dhanha Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(2) Mehsi Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).
(3) Barachakia Hospital	..	4	(3 for males and 1 for females).
(4) Barharwa Hospital	..	6	(4 for males and 2 for females).

(C) Name of hospital maintained by the Mission—

Name.		Number of beds.	
The Duncan Hospital, Raxaul	..	60	(50 general and 10 midwifery).

As a rule it may be said that all these hospitals actually keep patients much beyond the strength of actual beds. It is difficult to turn out patients and some make-shift arrangement has got to be made to keep them.

Dispensaries.

(A) Names of dispensaries maintained by the Government—

(1) Maniari State Dispensary.
(2) Nautan State Dispensary.
(3) Bhaisalotan P. W. D. Dispensary (run by the Irrigation Department).
(4) Narkatiaganj Railway Dispensary (run by the Railway Department, Central Government).
(5) Dhanha State Dispensary.
(6) Mainatand State Dispensary.

(7) Chauradano State Dispensary.
(8) Raxaul State Dispensary.
(9) Naukahatta Dispensary (meant for refugees in Bettiah).
(10) Kumarbagh Dispensary (meant for refugees in Bettiah).

(B) Names of dispensaries maintained by the District Board—

(1) Sugauli Dispensary.
(2) Adapur Dispensary.
(3) Madhuban Dispensary.
(4) Kessariya Dispensary.
(5) Sangrampur Dispensary.
(6) Pakarideyal Dispensary.
(7) Ghorasahan Dispensary.
(8) Sheikhpurwa Dispensary.
(9) Arreraj Dispensary.
(10) Ramgarhwa Dispensary.
(11) Jihuli Dispensary.
(12) Paharpur Dispensary.
(13) Deokulia Dispensary.
(14) Sariswa Dispensary.
(15) Jogapatty Dispensary.
(16) Chainpatia Dispensary.
(17) Lauria Dispensary.
(18) Amolwa Dispensary.
(19) Sikta Dispensary.
(20) Patilarh Dispensary.
(21) Bakhari Bazar Dispensary.
(22) Semra Bazar Dispensary.
(23) Thakarha Dispensary.

(C) Names of dispensaries maintained by the Christian Mission—

(1) Motihari Dispensary.
(2) Ghorasahan Dispensary.

Leper Clinics.

The district of Champaran was fortunate to have a small incidence of leprosy in the last century. Hunter in his *Statistical Account of Champaran* published in 1877 has quoted the census figures from 1872 census wherein it was shown that 275 males and 30 females, totalling 305, or .0212 of the total population were classified as before in the district. Mr. O'Malley in his *District Gazetteer of Champaran* published in 1907 mentioned about the incidence of leprosy in the district " Leprosy is less common than in any other district in Bihar, the proportion of lepers being only 33 males and 4 females per 1,00,000 of either sex ". But Mr. Swanzy in his revised edition of the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* published in 1938 has observed that the incidence of leprosy in the district was " fairly common ". In order to combat this fell disease there have been opened up a number of leper clinics by Government initiative, the District Board and Missionary parties. The Government maintain four leper clinics in the district, viz., (1) Bakhri Leper Clinic, (2) Dhaka Leper Clinic, (3) Bettiah Leper Clinic and (4) Motihari Leper Clinic. The District Board maintains one leper clinic at Ramgarhwa. The Christian Missions maintain (1) the Anti-Leprosy Clinic, Motihari, (2) Ghorasahan Anti-Leprosy Clinic and (3) Belwa Anti-Leprosy Clinic and (4) the Anti-Leprosy Clinic attached to the Duncan Hospital, Raxaul. With the very location of these clinics scattered over different places in the district it is indicated that the incidence of leprosy is widely spread in the district. The most unfortunate fact is that the incidence of leprosy is on increase in certain areas, and scattered cases of leprosy occur in Motihari Mufasil, Hansidhi and Madhuban P.-S. They are mostly concentrated towards the north in the area of Ramgarhwa, Dhaka and Patahi. Attention of the State Government has been drawn in this connection and the Anti-Leprosy Scheme launched in the State works also in this district. Something more is needed to be done since the present measures for control of the incidence of leprosy is not sufficient.

Chest Clinic.

(1) Motihari Chest Clinic (run by a local Association).
(2) Bettiah Chest Clinic (run by the Government).

MOBILE HEALTH CENTRES AND SUB-CENTRES.

After the advent of independence in the country, the planners of a healthy and prosperous India put much emphasis on the intensification of public health measures. It was noted by them that there was an unhappy trend among the young medical graduates, i.e., an allergy to settle down in the rural areas. Their preference for urban areas therefore left a wide gulf between the rural and urban health condition. Moreover, due to ignorance occurrence of epidemics and a large number of death was a regular feature. To protect the rural people in particular and the entire population in general provisions were made for opening up new mobile health centres and sub-centres in the various Community Development Blocks in the country.

Champaran district, since the start of the above scheme has been fortunate to have mobile health centres and sub-centres at Tinpheria, Gonouli and Machargawa in Bagaha Community Development Block. Monin, Jurapakari and Sherwa in Ramnagar Community Development Block; Balbal, Sherwa, Majedua and Jamunia in (Shikarpur) Gaunaha Post Intensive Block, Madhubani, Laukhaura and Lachmipur in Motihari (I) National Extension Service Block and Mathurapur, Semra and Gokhula in Motihari (II) National Extension Service Block. Each sub-centres of National Extension Service Block and Community Development Blocks is run by 1 Health Worker, 1 trained *dai* and 1 servant.

As preventive measures, these centres and sub-centres disinfect wells and houses, give cholera inoculations, vaccination against small-pox, distribute freely skimmed milk powder to the needy and poor public in the area covered by each Health centre and distribute Multivitamin tablets free of cost to the needy population. For curative purposes such measures are taken as patients who attend the health centres are treated as outdoor patients free of cost. The Medical Officer-incharge of the centre attends each sub-centre twice a week and examines the patients and distributes medicines to them.

More of health centres will be opened. It cannot be said that everything has been done according to the demand of the situation but surely the ice has been broken. For people are increasingly becoming more and more health conscious and that more and more people especially the poorest section are getting better medical attention than a decade before.

MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE CENTRES.

Towards providing better care and medical attention to mothers in both pre-natal and post-natal stages and also to children from their birth up to certain age, so far four maternity and child welfare centres have been opened in the district. Out of these four welfare centres the Motihari Maternity and Child Welfare Centre is run by a local association and subsidised by the Government, the Bettiah Maternity and Child Welfare Centre is run by the State Government, the Gaunaha Maternity and Child Welfare Centre is run by the Government of India and the Ramnagar Maternity Centre is run by the United Nations Invalid and Child Emergency Fund.

These centres are concerned with the attendance of children, attendance of expecting and nursing mothers, distribution of milk powder free of cost to the children and mothers, baths given to the children and mother and organising Baby shows from time to time and distribution of prizes to the babies at different places during the year. Home visits are also made by the medical staff to look after children, anti-natal cases, post-natal cases, conducting of delivery cases and visiting and re-visiting of toddlers and infants. These centres are increasingly becoming popular and very helpful to mothers and children both.

FAMILY PLANNING CENTRES.

There are three family planning centres in Champaran, one attached to the Motihari Sadar Hospital, another attached to M. J. K. Hospital, Bettiah and still another attached to Motihari N. E. S. Block no. I. The last mentioned consists of two sub-centres. The centre at Motihari Hospital is run by a Lady Health Visitor, who advises the desirous public on the utility of family planning. At Bettiah there is one part-time lady doctor and one part-time male doctor, besides one Lady Health Visitor. Each sub-centre at Motihari

Block is run by a trained *dai* and their work is supervised by a Lady Health Visitor.

NURSES TRAINING CENTRE.

There is one school for auxiliary nurses training at Bettiah, which is run by the State Government and has seats for 30 trainees.

ANTI-MALARIA CENTRES.

(1) Anti-Malaria Control Unit, Bettiah, maintained by the State Government.

(2) Anti-Malaria Centre, Laukaria, maintained by the District Board.

MEDICINE DISTRIBUTING CENTRES.

(1) Adhakaparia Medicine Distributing Centre, Raxaul police-station.

(2) Piprasi Bazar Medicine Distributing Centre, Dhanaha police-station.

The staff in each centre consists of one Medical Officer, one Supervisor and one medicine carrier. There are two sub-centres attended to each centre at a distance of three miles which are attended by the Medical Officer and other staff twice a week. They also tour within the radius of five miles from the main centre in villages and distribute medicine to patients.

PUBLIC HEALTH CENTRES.

There are 25 Public Health Centres in the district located in each police-station to look after public health work.

OTHER MEDICAL INSTITUTIONS.

Among the other medical institutions mention may be made of 24 *Ayurvedic* dispensaries run by the District Board, three similar dispensaries subsidised by the Government and four homeopathic dispensaries run by the District Board in the district. Besides, there are one *Unani* and one *Kaviraji* institutions at Bettiah which are aided by the Government. They earlier used to be run by the ex-Bettiah Estate, but since the estate has been taken over by the Government, the institutions are run by the Government.

A brief account of the more important medical institutions in the district is given below.

Sadar Hospital, Motihari.

The exact date of establishment of the Sadar Hospital is not available, but from the Inspection Book of the Hospital it appears that it was inspected by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Bihar and Bengal as far back as in 1896. The present hospital was then a small dispensary. The daily average attendance of out-patients was 124.7. It was being run by three medical staff, i.e., one Medical Officer, one Compounder and one Dresser.

It is also not available as to when the said dispensary was converted into a hospital. However, from the inspection note of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Bihar and Orissa, who inspected the hospital in 1912, it appears that it was then running as a hospital, although in the note itself it has been mentioned as a charitable dispensary. In 1912 there was a provision for 50 beds (33 males and 17 females). Since then the hospital has been expanding rapidly. In the earthquake of 1934 the old buildings of the hospital were badly damaged and till 1939 the hospital was run in a thatched hutment and semi-*pucca* building. In 1939 the hospital was shifted to newly built *pucca* buildings at Gopalpur, in which it is functioning still.

The hospital was provincialised with effect from the 1st April, 1945 and since then it is entirely under the management and control of the State Government. Prior to 1945 it was being managed by a joint committee and was being mainly financed by the Champaran District Board and Motihari Municipality. Since provincialisation the entire cost of running the hospital, which comes to about 6 lakhs annually, is borne by the State Government.

The present sanctioned bed strength of the hospital is 87, including 10 seats for tuberculosis patients who are housed in a separate T. B. Ward. The daily average number of indoor and outdoor patients from 1946 to 1956 is as follows :—

Years.	1946.	1947.	1948.	1949.	1950.	1951.	1952.	1953.	1954.	1955.	1956.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Indoor	75.0	88.0	60.8	68.0	78.0	76.0	76.0	88.0	86.0	100.5	107.8
Outdoor	110.0	86.0	93.0	109.0	98.0	110.0	119.0	126.0	133.0	143.0	163.7

An X-ray machine has been installed in this hospital, which is functioning since the 15th January, 1957. A Family Planning Centre in the out-patient department of female section has been started in this hospital since the 1st September, 1955. A Leprosy Clinic functions in the hospital for two days in a week. An Anti-Rabic Centre is also functioning in the hospital. There is a Maternity and Child Welfare Centre attached to this hospital, which is maintained by the Champaran District Board and Motihari Municipality.

King Edward Memorial Hospital, Bettiah.

In 1911 Mr. J. R. Lewis, Manager, ex-Bettiah Estate, suggested to construct an up-to-date hospital in place of a dilapidated municipal hospital in the memory of late King Edward VII. The foundation of the hospital building was laid on the 31st August, 1912 and the hospital was formerly opened on the 16th March, 1916 by Sir Charles Stuart Bailey, the then Governor of Bihar and Orissa. The hospital then consisted of 58 seats for indoor patients, an outdoor dispensary and staff quarters.

In the earthquake of 1934, the buildings of the hospital were badly damaged and the hospital was run in temporarily built buildings till the 25th February, 1937, when it was shifted to its present buildings, which were constructed at a cost of about Rs. 5.5 lakhs.

So far the financial aspect of the hospital is concerned, the Bettiah King Edward Memorial Hospital Trust Fund was created on the 1st August, 1916 and a sum of Rs. 6,49,000 was invested in Government promissory notes. From time to time the Manager of ex-Bettiah Raj made further investments and now in 1957 the total sum invested comes to Rs. 11,11,700 giving an annual interest of Rs. 32,707.

At present the hospital consists of medical wards, surgical wards, septic ward, isolation and infection ward, tuberculosis ward, paying ward and has 120 beds, 114 for males and 6 for females.

The hospital has been provincialised since the 2nd February, 1951 and since then the Government have the responsibility of its management and finance.

In the year 1958 the daily average number of indoor and outdoor patients was 132.3 and 173.3, respectively.

Maharani Janki Kuer Hospital, Bettiah.

The present Maharani Janki Kuer Hospital was originally named as " Bettiah Raj Lady Dufferin Hospital " and was established by the Maharaja of ex-Bettiah Estate during the reign of Maharani Victoria. It used to be managed and maintained at the cost of ex-Bettiah Raj. The hospital was rechristened as " Maharani Janki Kuer Hospital " in 1949.

In 1935 the ex-Bettiah Raj authorities, under a deed of trust, invested a sum of Rs. 9,50,000 and formed a Committee of Management consisting of the District Magistrate, the Manager, ex-Bettiah Raj, the Civil Surgeon, Champaran, the Lady Medical Superintendent of the hospital and a lady member nominated by the Government. Thence forward the hospital used to be financed by the interest accrued on the investments, contributions from the ex-Bettiah Raj and the Government. From the 1st January, 1949 the hospital has been provincialised and is now under the control and management of the Government.

Up to the 31st March, 1956 the sanctioned bed strength of the hospital was 120, although the daily average attendance of in-patients was always more than 160 and the daily average attendance of out-patients was also about the same. Naturally, the Government raised the bed of the hospital to 167 with effect from the 1st April, 1956 and the necessary staff for the increased bed strength was also sanctioned. At present the hospital consists of medical ward, surgical ward, maternity ward, isolation ward, paying ward and children ward.

A large number of gynæcological and obstetrical cases come for treatment in this hospital. Even cases from the territory of Nepal, Uttar Pradesh, Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur come for treatment in this hospital. A few cases from Gaya, it is reported, have also been received recently. The number of labour cases treated in 1950 was 919 which went up to 2,069 in 1956. The number of labour cases is increasing every year, as the people are becoming more and more medical minded gradually. Similarly the number of operations performed has also considerably increased in recent years.

The Main Hospital Block, including the out-patient department and isolation ward, was erected in 1892 and has now been declared unsafe for habitation. Thus the necessity for the construction of a new building has become somewhat unavoidable. In 1958 the daily average number of indoor and outdoor patients was 243.99 and 128.62, respectively.

The Duncan Hospital, Raxaul.

The Duncan Hospital, Raxaul was founded as a 30-bedded hospital in 1931 by Dr. H. C. Duncan and functioned under his superintendentship until 1941, when he proceeded on army medical service. In his absence it was run under the superintendentship of a temporary doctor till 1942 and was closed in that year. The hospital was re-opened in October, 1948, when Mr. and Mrs. Strong, both doctors, were appointed by the Mission. This hospital is functioning under the auspices of the Regions Beyond Missionary Union.

Since 1948 the hospital has gradually been developing. A septic tank system has been installed throughout the compound of the hospital and the lighting and water systems have been improved and extended. There have also been extension of old buildings and construction of new ones. Extensions have been made in the office block and various staff quarters. A Nurses Home with lecture room, demonstration room and staff kitchen, dining rooms and godowns, memorial block of six small private rooms for women patients, dispensary block, men's out-patient department, leprosy clinic and an X-ray block have been constructed. A pathological laboratory was established in the hospital in 1952 and the X-ray unit was installed in 1956. The present number of general beds is 50 and that of midwifery is 20 in 1959.

This hospital also imparts training to nurses and dressers. In 1950 the hospital was approved by the Bihar Nursing Council for affiliation with the Duchess of Teck Hospital, Patna (Women's Hospital) for the purpose of providing training for their trainees in male nursing. In 1953, it was recognised as training centre for dressers' course and in 1956 it was approved by the Bihar Nursing Council for auxiliary nurses' training in conjunction with the Duchess of Teck Hospital, Patna.

There has been considerable increase in the number of patients in this hospital in recent years. The average daily attendance of out-patients has increased from 43 in 1953 to 72 in 1958. Similarly the number of in-patients during the period has increased from 2.8 to 4.4 in 1958. The number of new patients and those who repeated their visits in the Leper Clinic of the hospital was 122 and 2,637, respectively in 1958.

DISEASES, DEATHS AND CAUSES OF DEATHS.

The common diseases in this district are malaria, kala-azar, filariaisis, tuberculosis, leprosy, venereal diseases, virus diseases, i.e., erruptive fever (small-pox), dengue, enteric fevers (typhoid, paratyphoid A and B), skin diseases, diarrhoea, dysentery (baccillary and amœbic), hookworm infection, and goitre.* Earlier the district was also a victim of cholera and plague, but now the incidence of the former has fallen down to the negligible extent and the latter has not occurred since 1948.

Separate statistics showing the incidence for the principal diseases are not available, excepting for fever, cholera, small-pox and plague. The statistics of fever are reported to include almost all types of fever, excepting small-pox. The statistics of fever are given below and that of small-pox, plague and cholera will be given under the sub-head " Epidemics " :—

Year.			Fever cases treated.	Deaths from fever.
1930	..	..	Not available	..
1931	..	..	Ditto	..
1932	..	..	Ditto	..
1933	..	..	Ditto	..

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* A team of doctors at the instance of the Indian Council of Medical Research, New Delhi had visited different places in Bettiah subdivision and collected materials for investigation into the possible causes of Goitre (P. C. R. C.)

Year.	Fever cases treated.	Deaths from fever.
1934	Not available	35,101
1935	Ditto	34,865
1936	Ditto	36,322
1937	Ditto	32,745
1938	Ditto	40,792
1939	Ditto	38,555
1940	Ditto	37,704
1941	Ditto	35,520
1942	Ditto	33,551
1943	Ditto	31,884
1944	Ditto	45,619
1945	Ditto	52,272
1946	Ditto	43,735
1947	Ditto	34,869
1948	72,679	26,307
1949	73,899	23,823
1950	71,958	27,850
1951	73,075	27,216
1952	90,728	23,317
1953	60,809	22,361
1954	72,098	21,231
1955	51,331	17,214
1956	86,844	17,646

There is no co-relation between the number of fever cases treated and the number of reported deaths from fever. The cases of fever treated only include such figures as reported in the annual return of different hospitals and dispensaries, whereas the number of deaths from fever includes the figures reported by the village *chaukidar* as well as the figures given in the annual return of the different hospitals and dispensaries.

Of all kinds of fever malaria and kala-azar have been more common in the district. Malaria will be dealt with later. So far kala-azar is concerned, it is reported that the incidence has been very high in this district. By the vigorous public health measures and treatment of cases the disease has been somewhat controlled. Spraying of D. D. T. in the district to control malaria has also a side effect on sand fly and has naturally aided in controlling the epidemic of kala-azar.

It is reported that the incidence of diarrhoea and dysentery was considerably high in the past. The incidence has been brought down by the regular disinfection of wells by the public health staff, supply of better drinking water and sinking of tube-wells in the rural area. Free distribution of drugs by the public health staff, Medical Officers of the District Board and Gram Panchayats has also helped improve the situation.

The incidence of leprosy is reported to be on the increase in certain rural areas of the district. No leprosy survey has yet taken place in the district. Attention of the State Government has been drawn towards this disease and recently an anti-leprosy scheme has been launched in the State. The existing measures for the control of the incidence of leprosy are not sufficient. The names of anti-leprosy clinics have already been mentioned above.

The tuberculosis of the lungs is one of the most common diseases of the district. There are only two chest clinics functioning in the district, one attached to the Sadar Hospital, Motihari and another at Bettiah. B. C. G. vaccination to school children was given in 1952-53, but this measure was not sufficient. The attention of the State Government has been drawn to the fact and B. C. G. vaccination on a mass scale is to be started in this district.

The venereal disease cases are treated in almost all the hospitals and dispensaries of the district. There is no special arrangement for the treatment of this disease in any of the medical institutions in the district. The present arrangement is not considered to be satisfactory. It is reported that no particular increase is visible in the incidence of venereal diseases.

Goitre is a common disease of the district, chiefly in the foot-hill area of Tarai. The belt by the side of river Sikrahana was particularly affected by Goitre before. Mineral deficiencies in the drinking water of the area is responsible for the spread of this disease. Better water-supply will control this disease.

The figures of total death for the district as a whole for the year 1941 to 1956 are given below :—

Year.	Deaths (registered).
1941	44,394
1942	41,241
1943	42,718
1944	83,062
1945	63,330
1946	55,861
1947	40,195
1948	33,173

Year.	Deaths (registered).
1949	27,974
1950	36,618
1951	35,849
1952	28,681
1953	26,456
1954	23,264
1955	21,455
1956	20,817

The abovementioned figures for total deaths in the district, when compared to the figures for fever quoted earlier, clearly show that in the total death the share of fever is the largest. From the study of figures of deaths from cholera, plague, and small-pox, which will be mentioned later, it is found that next to fever cholera used to have next share before 1951. Since then the incidence of death from almost all these diseases has shown a remarkable decline and has become negligible as compared to the earlier incidence. The fever has also shown a downward tendency, still the death from fever is quite considerable.

EPIDEMICS AND THEIR CONTROL.

Epidemics were also a worry to the earlier administrative officers particularly because of the inaccessibility of places. From letter no. 210, dated the 24th August 1845, from Mr. H. Alexander, Joint Magistrate, Champaran, to Mr. Halliday, Secretary to the Government of Bengal, it would appear that there was a serious outbreak of cholera at Motihari town, Motihari Jail and Sugauli. Strict orders were given from the administrative headquarters to take proper precautions from before. A general order was issued by the Right Honourable the Commander-in-chief, dated the 3rd November, 1858 to this effect. The Sanitary Officers were warned to take measures to have themselves apprised of the earliest appearance in the district of any epidemic specially cholera and communicate with each other regarding the peculiar features and progress of such diseases.

Of the diseases which generally take an epidemic form in this district, mention may be made of cholera, plague, small-pox and malaria.

As mentioned before, next to fever the greatest mortality in this district occurs from cholera. There are references to widespread cholera in different years in the nineteenth century. The worst epidemic of cholera on record occurred in 1934, 1935, 1944 and 1946. The following statistics may be of interest so far cholera is concerned :—

Year.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Inoculation.	Well disinfection.
1930 to 1933	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1934 ..	7,520	6,156	3,63,541	28,376
1935 ..	7,855	3,638	2,60,538	26,358
1936 ..	N.A.	N.A.	22,078	N.A.
1937 ..	N.A.	N.A.	23,249	N.A.
1938 ..	3,945	2,698	2,35,732	26,542
1939 ..	347	288	1,20,114	N.A.
1940 ..	4,223	3,258	1,79,131	29,699
1941 ..	2,665	2,426	2,50,807	N.A.
1942 ..	2,208	1,775	2,46,326	24,899
1943 ..	2,199	1,695	2,17,893	N.A.
1944 ..	30,286	22,338	7,592	29,387
1945 ..	4,405	4,214	6,32,156	20,758
1946 ..	8,993	7,390	6,69,125	2,596
1947 ..	2,029	1,279	6,03,520	N.A.
1948 ..	2,643	2,209	4,61,940	N.A.
1949 ..	1,337	305	2,09,486	N.A.
1950 ..	7,959	3,907	6,48,635	9,795
1951 ..	107	54	3,56,835	8,862
1952 ..	304	194	3,06,725	1,75,079
1953 ..	714	352	5,26,940	1,84,345
1954 ..	6	1	3,78,189	1,58,727
1955 ..	..	..	3,84,455	1,58,727
1956 ..	82	41	3,64,066	2,34,208

The localities which chiefly used to be affected by cholera were the flood-affected pockets of Madhuban, Patahi, Dhaka, Kessariya, Gobindganj, Nautan, Jigopatti, Bagaha, Motihari Moffasil, Dhanaha, Majhaulia, Adapur and Lauriya thanas. May, June and July are the months when cholera epidemics generally occur.

Prior to 1951 the incidence of cholera attacks and deaths was very high, the year 1944 being the peak year. Since the year 1951-52 an Interim Urban and Rural Public Health Organisation programme has been launched and there has also been an increase in the public health staff. Mass inoculation and disinfection of wells in greater number have brought down the incidence. During the First Five-Year Plan period a scheme of National Water-Supply was started and the rural areas were provided with plenty of tube-wells which provided portable drinking water in the flood-affected area of this district. At the time of epidemics of cholera vigorous action is taken for mass inoculation and disinfection of wells. There is also a provision for opening emergency cholera hospitals in the affected rural areas to treat the cases locally on a short notice, when and where the emergency arises. Public health staff and Medical Officers of the District Board and Government dispensaries treat the cases free of cost. Doctors on emergency duties are also deputed by the Health Department. Drugs are distributed free of cost by these staff. The incidence has now been brought down to somewhat negligible point as compared to previous incidence.

Next to cholera the visitation of small-pox to this district a few years back used to be very common and was almost an annual feature. The following statistics are important to indicate the incidence of small-pox and its control :—

Year.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Vaccination.	
			Primary.	Re-vaccination.
1930	N.A.	115	37,738	2,767
1931	N.A.	259	38,401	2,153
1932	N.A.	1,069	50,459	31,086
1933	N.A.	2,186	48,238	39,938
1934	945	469	60,191	19,578
1935	1,023	610	69,889	24,525
1936	543	277	66,382	12,999
1937	705	297	68,529	20,034
1938	1,363	618	68,557	32,682
1939	1,626	600	61,845	35,016
1940	704	313	55,038	38,319

Year.		Attacks.	Deaths.	Vaccination.	
				Primary.	Re-vaccination.
1941	..	780	308	40,201	28,102
1942	..	845	270	55,833	28,953
1943	..	702	294	88,616	18,702
1944	..	1,899	1,239	63,351	36,991
1945	..	23,920	1,661	46,572	1,35,542
1946	..	910	265	75,493	20,115
1947	..	450	69	67,190	18,064
1948	..	606	345	68,455	62,263
1949	..	315	333	83,971	66,206
1950	..	1,452	931	85,407	1,62,461
1951	..	1,092	200	64,291	7,04,493
1952	..	433	51	1,19,280	2,81,440
1953	..	536	65	86,933	25,31,494
1954	..	35	1	39,017	2,07,202
1955	..	16	2	66,322	7,33,338
1956	..	..	..	79,643	10,19,441

The abovementioned figures indicate that there has been considerable decline in the incidence of small-pox. It was brought to nil in 1956. The reason for such a rapid reduction in the incidence is reported to be the implementation of the scheme of mass vaccination. In the year 1952-53 the Government of Bihar started a mass vaccination scheme in all the districts of the State to give protection against small-pox to the extent of 80 per cent of the population. Extra Health Assistants were employed and they were deputed districtwise. Vaccine Institute, Namkum, Ranchi has had to increase the production of lymph vaccine and supply thereof to the district staff.

The scheme was also launched in the district of Champaran in 1952 and by the close of the First Five-Year Plan the mass vaccination scheme was completed and it is reported that population to the extent of 70 per cent was vaccinated.

Plague was more or less an annual epidemic in both the subdivisions of the district prior to 1949. The worst affected area was Bettiah subdivision, specially Bettiah, Bagaha and Majhaulia thanas. The following figures in this respect are of interest :—

Year.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Inoculation.	House cynogassed.	Rat-holes cynogassed.	D. D. T. sprayed in houses.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1930 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1931 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1932 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1933 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1934 ..	45	42	1,345	..	..	60
1935 ..	140	135	3,729	..	..	173
1936 ..	29	27	3,945	..	..	52
1937 ..	8	6	3,260	..	..	16
1938 ..	130	127	4,035	..	..	145
1939 ..	57	44	4,610	..	..	..
1940 ..	83	46	6,701	..	..	74
1941 ..	60	22	5,832	..	..	60
1942 ..	Nil	Nil	3,075	..	..	..
1943 ..	12	6	4,968	..	..	..
1944 ..	190	184	21,745	..	..	196
1945 ..	50	47	2,302	..	..	62
1946 ..	72	65	20,374	559	6,605	345
1947 ..	78	63	23,521	650	8,532	421
1948 ..	32	15	14,559	8,588	70,938	4,597
1949 ..	Nil	Nil	45	10,087	57,738	2,244

The Souvenir no. XVIII published by the Bihar State Branch of the Indian Medical Association published on the eve of Bihar State Medical Conference at Bettiah in 1958 indicates that there were severe epidemics of plague in 1814 and 1916. But figures are not available.

The incidence was fairly high in 1944 and 1947. The proportion of death to attack was exceptionally high in 1944.

By vigorous anti-plague measures the epidemic was controlled and now since the year 1949 the disease is absent in this district. The anti-plague measures consisted of inoculation, cynogassing the houses and rat-holes, spray of D. D. T. and free distribution of sulpha-drugs. The anti-plague measures taken by the public health staff has brought the epidemic completely under control. From time to time special epidemic staff used to be deputed to control the epidemic. Since the year 1953 the scheme has been abolished as the plague as an epidemic could be said to have completely subsided.

Malaria and Anti-Malarial Measures.

Earlier the incidence of malaria was very high in this district. The usually affected pockets were the foot-hill areas of the district. Flood-affected areas were also the victim of this disease. Generally it used to take epidemic form in these areas. The statistics of malarial incidence are not separately available but are included in the figures for fever which have already been quoted above.

The splenic index as per survey done in 1952-53 at Narkatiaganj, Bagaha and Ramnagar and in 1953-54 at Sikta, Mainatand, Raxaul, Ghorasahan and Adapur was 35 to 85 per cent, but in 1956 in the same area it was found to be 10.15 per cent. This decrease was the result of National Malaria Control Programme which was started immediately after the splenic surveys were completed, that is, in 1954. According to this programme, Anti-Malaria Control units and Sub-units were started at different places in the district. Prior to the launching of this programme the usual anti-malaria drugs through public health staff posted at various police-stations and also through the Medical Officers of the Government and the District Board dispensaries used to be distributed. With the launching of Malaria Control Programme spraying of D. D. T. in houses and cattle sheds was also taken up. In respect of the distribution of medicines, more vigorous action has been taken by establishing Control Units and Sub-units. The Malaria Control Unit is at present functioning in this district with headquarters at Bettiah. Earlier its headquarters was at Motihari till 1st June 1956.

In the areas where Malaria Control Programme has not been launched medicines are distributed through public health staff, Medical Officers of the Government and the District Board dispensaries, emergency Medical Officers posted by the Government from time to time and Gram Panchayats.

Anti-malaria drugs are supplied by the Health Directorate and are also purchased by the District Magistrate for distribution in the rural area.

All the measures taken together have helped reduce the incidence of malaria to a considerable extent and at present in addition to the Malaria Control Unit, one Anti-malaria Centre is functioning in this district at Laukaria, which is maintained by the local District Board.

REGISTRATION OF VITAL STATISTICS.

The system for the collection of vital statistics introduced in 1892 is still in vogue. Under this system vital occurrences are reported by the *chaukidars* to the police, and the latter submits monthly returns to the Civil Surgeon, who finally prepares statistics for the whole district. The *chaukidar's* knowledge of the diseases is naturally vague and it cannot be said that he is normally right in most of the cases regarding the diagnosis of the case. It has also to be mentioned that there is no co-relationship between the report of diseases and the report of deaths. A *chaukidar* reporting fifty cases of attacks of fever in one week and five cases of death from fever in that week does not necessarily mean that the five cases of death from fever came from that fifty cases of fever reported.

The vital statistics as recorded at the census of 1951 from 1941 to 1950 and as supplied by the Civil Surgeon for the later period are given below :—

Year.	Births.	Deaths.
1941	74,430	44,394
1942	64,060	41,241
1943	57,807	42,718
1944	52,604	83,062
1945	52,396	63,330
1946	53,718	55,861
1947	45,479	40,195
1948	46,130	33,173
1949	51,074	27,974
1950	52,994	36,618
1951	50,376	35,849
1952	51,884	28,681
1953	54,516	26,456
1954	55,302	23,264
1955	56,045	21,455
1956	58,738	20,817

In the number of births there has been a considerable decline as compared to 1941. The figures show that the decline in the number of births set in since 1942 and continued more or less to be so till the year 1948, from whence it again showed improvement. The reasons for such a mercurial rise and fall, may be said to be many, although nothing definite can be said. It appears that during the war period some dislocation might have occurred in the static life of the male population of the district and this may be said one of the probable reasons for the decline. Then the same period also appears to be the period of rampant epidemics and other diseases which resulted into considerable deaths. Although the age-groups of the deceased persons are not available, but it may also be one of the reasons of decline in the number of births. The figures for the years immediately succeeding the war provides ground for such reasoning. The figures from 1949 to 1955 probably appear to be related with the huge decline in the incidence of epidemics and other diseases and also with the general prosperity or otherwise of the district in different years. The birth control measures are also being resorted to by the people of the district since last two to three years. They are becoming gradually popular.

There has also been considerable decline in the figures of death. The number is even less than half in 1956. Heavy deaths occurred in 1944, 1945 and 1946. These were the years when different epidemics and fever took the heaviest toll of life. The decline in the recent years has been partly because of the decline in the incidence of epidemics as well as in the infantile mortality.

HEALTH SURVEYS.

Although the incidence of diseases is quite high in this district and the nutritional value of the diet of the common man is very poor, there has been no proper nutritional survey in the district. There was a nutrition assessment of the children up to 14 years at Bagaha and Narkatiaganj which are small townships in Bettiah subdivision. This assessment in 1953 gives us some idea of the percentage of children manifesting deficiency diseases. At these places the common ailments for which a large number of children were suffering were fluorosis, caries, adipose tissue and diarrhœa. The nutrition assessment schedule sent by the Civil Surgeon lacks in the information as to the number of cases that were actually examined and as such the value of this assessment is only tentative.

CHAPTER XVI.

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES.

LABOUR WELFARE.

The labourers in the district, as in other districts in Bihar, may be classified into agricultural and non-agricultural categories. There is not much of statutory obligation for the agricultural labour. They are mobile and free to offer their services at the best market. The relationship between the agriculturist and the agricultural labour depends on convention and reasonable wages for the labour. The workers in the factories, trade and commerce enterprises and business concerns are, on the contrary, covered by certain statutory Acts. The labourers in this sector do not appear to be reconciled to their obligations. There seems to be a greater anxiety for asserting rights than for discharging their obligations. An accurate data regarding the number of agricultural labourers in comparison to the non-agricultural labourers are not possible. The same labourer working in a Sugar Factory may be described as a factory hand but when working in the field after the season of the factory he will be taken as an agricultural one. Out of the total population of the district, namely, 25,15,343, the agricultural classes number 23,60,635 and the non-agricultural classes 1,54,708, the latter accounting for all those engaged in production other than cultivation, commerce, transport and other services and miscellaneous occupations. It will be seen that on this basis nearly 94 per cent of the population come under the category of agricultural classes and only about 6 per cent under non-agricultural classes.

The agricultural labourers may be landless or owners of land. Agricultural labour is mostly derived from the families of the agriculturists and there is still a reciprocity among them in the villages. It is quite usual for one agriculturist family to work on another's field without any wages on the understanding that there will be a reciprocal exchange of labour. But the unit of the agriculturist family is not always sufficient for the agricultural operations and has to be supplemented by casual labourers.

There was a time when the custom of tied or bonded labour was quite common. Each large agriculturist family used to have one or more of bonded labourers commonly known as the *kamia*. For a petty advance of money the *kamia* would be practically the bond slave of the agriculturist and go on toiling on his field just for a mere feed and the labour will be accounted towards the interest. There have even been cases where two generations have worked for a petty advance of Rs. 25. Occasionally a small patch of land would be given to the *kamia* as a gesture of good-will but really to tighten the shackle more.

Kamiauti system has now completely disappeared. The landed agriculturist families are now in tremendous difficulties for finding proper labour for their fields unless competitive wages are offered. There is no statutory law to stop the movement of agriculturist labour and at the moment it is the labour who can almost indicate his terms.

On the average the daily wages of a casual labourer are not less than Rs. 1.50 nP. Occasionally he is also given a midday meal. Wages are also paid in kind or in both. The daily wages of a woman and a child labourer work out usually at half the wages of an adult male labourer.

As regards the non-agricultural classes which cover only 6 per cent of the whole population the table below from the Census Table, 1951 will show the number of workers in different classes of industries.

The table relates only to economically active persons whose principal means of livelihood is non-agricultural and who derive their income from productive activities.

Employers, Employees and Independent workers in Industries and Services.

Occupations.	Total.		Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Primary industries, like stock raising rearing of small animals and insects, plantation, forestry and wood-cutting, etc.	642	273	6	18	46	30	590	225
2. Mining and quarrying	115	92	2	8	77	79	36	5
3. Processing and manufacture—Food Stuffs, Textiles, leather and products thereof.	4,541	975	130	56	1,936	250	2,475	669
4. Processing and manufacturing Metals, chemicals and products thereof.	1,242	277	18	15	270	84	954	178
5. Processing and manufacturing, *viz.*, products of petrolium and coal, bricks and tiles and other clay products, etc.	2,796	594	96	8	380	54	2,320	532
6. Construction and utilities—construction of buildings, roads and bridges, etc.	1,358	111	16	4	517	72	825	35
7. Commerce	10,438	2,996	1,588	351	1,141	614	7,709	2,031
8. Transport, storage and communication ..	1,781	235	78	9	786	71	917	155
9. Health, administration and Public education	2,552	202	17	..	2,057	148	478	548
10. Services not elsewhere specified, e.g., domestic servants, barbers and beauty shops, etc.	10,244	2,430	343	38	4,738	1,403	5,263	989
ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES ..	35,709	8,185	2,194	507	11,948	2,805	21,567	4,873

For some particular details the following table from the Census Statistics of 1951 may be useful :—

Establishments.	Number of workers (approximate).
(*i*) Sugar Mills	7,811
(*ii*) Rice and Oil Mills	1,480
(*iii*) Button Factories	448
(*iv*) Flour Mills	86
(*v*) Printing Presses	100
(*vi*) Miscellaneous	223

It will be seen that out of the 10 divisions of persons in all the industries and services, the proportion of independent workers is dominant, that is, certainly at least more than half in seven of them excepting only nos. 2, 9 and 10. This explains the inadequate labour welfare measures that have been so far introduced in the district. Statutory labour welfare measures have been introduced in only 9 Sugar Factories employing about 7,811 workers. It is at these centres that production is concentrated and labour force is somewhat organised.

One gazetted District Labour Officer with headquarters at Motihari has been appointed only since the last few years. He is the Conciliation Officer for the district under the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947, in which capacity he tries to bring about an amicable settlement of any dispute between the employer and employees of industrial establishments. He is also the Inspecting Officer under the Bihar Shops and Establishment Act, 1953. He is responsible for the registration of all the shops, covered by the Act, which is a very comprehensive one and on the lines of Factories Act, 1948. He has to administer and enforce the provisions of the Act which are mainly as regards the hours of work of the employees (eight hours), weekly rest, annual leave with wages (one day for 20 days), payment of wages in time according to the terms of employment, protection of the employees against illegal fines and deductions, discharge or dismissal, etc. The employers have to maintain some prescribed registers and submit reports regarding the working of their concern with reference to wages, over-time, holidays, leave, etc. The Act imposes certain restrictions on the opening and closing hours of the shops, although this system is in force now only within the municipal limits of Motihari town.

The District Labour Officer is also Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 and is responsible for the enforcement of the minimum wages as fixed by the Government from time to time, in respect of both the schedules, which cover industrial as well as agricultural sectors of employers and employees. But in this district only part I of the schedule, covering only industrial sectors' employers and employees, is in force. And lastly the District Labour Officer is the Inspector under Weekly Holidays Act, 1942, which has been put in force only in the areas of Bettiah Municipality and Lautaha Notified Area Committee, Motihari. There is a proposal to extend the Act to Raxaul, Barachakia, Narkatiaganj, Ramnagar, etc.

Nearly 178 factories of different types have been registered which imply that all these factories have to fulfil statutory requirements that have been or are being promulgated from time to time.

WAGES.

The Minimum Wages Act has been enforced in Rice, Flour, and Oil Mills. The wages of the labourers in Sugar Factories have been standardised by the awards, agreements, and decisions of the Tripartite conferences. The minimum wage in sugar industries is now Rs. 55 *plus* annas 12 per month as per *ad hoc* increment granted according to the recent decisions of the Standing Committee for sugar. So far as Rice, Flour and Oil Mills are concerned the minimum wage is Rs. 44 per month or Rs. 1-6-0 per day. The workers in Sugar Factories get a bonus every year and there are certain other amenities and privileges which they enjoy. The workers employed in Rice Mills, Oil Mills, etc., have also their monthly wages now fixed at the same rate as that of the Sugar Mills. Owing to these innovations there is now a sense of some security among the workers.

The Provident Fund Scheme has also been very beneficial to the workers and has encouraged thrift among them. According to this scheme both the employer and the employees contribute towards the fund for the individual worker and the interest is paid by the employer. Some of the Sugar Mills have got the Provident Fund Scheme which is leviable only for industries employing 500 or more workers. Other welfare facilities for the heavy workers include facilities for housing, medical aid, canteen, creches, educational and recreational ones. There is a statutory obligation on the Sugar Factories and other concerns employing more than 500 persons to extend these amenities to the workers. It may be generally said that the Sugar Factories have provided quarters to a substantial number of their workers. During the season, hutments are erected for seasonal workers. Although there has been a great increase in the number of quarters in different Sugar Factories the housing facilities do not yet cover the bulk of the workers. As a large percentage of the workers, however, come from adjoining villages the problem has not become so very acute. Free basic medical aid is provided by the Sugar Factories who have their dispensaries with permanent and part-time doctors and compounders. The other concerns provide a very elementary type of basic medical aid. Canteens have now been provided by the Sugar

Factories but the facilities offered in these canteens are rather nominal. The educational amenities given cannot, however, be said to be adequate. Harinagar Sugar Mills, Harinagar (Ramnagar) has arranged for an Upper Primary School and one High English School. The North Bihar Sugar Mills, Bagaha runs one Upper Primary School and a proposed Middle School. Shri Hanuman Sugar Mills, Ltd., Motihari runs one Upper Primary School and one Middle School. M. P. Sugar Works, Ltd., Majhaulia and S. K. G. Sugar Mills, Ltd., Lauriya run one H. E. School each. The Champaran Sugar Company, Ltd., Barachakia runs two schools up to class V, one each for boys and girls. The New Swadeshi Sugar Mills, Ltd., Narkatiaganj runs only one Primary School. These schools attract children from the neighbouring villages. There is a vast scope for improvement in the status and standard of teaching.

The Sugar Factories have got clubs in which there are some arrangements for games and music. Free electricity has been given to the better type quarters by the Sugar Factories. The tenements of the labourers have no electricity. There are arrangements for supply of water by installation of water taps or hand pipes. It cannot be said that an adequate number of lavatories have been provided. The sanitary arrangements in the areas where the workers live cannot be said to be quite up to the standard.

The Labour Department has been striving to start Voluntary Labour Welfare Fund even at the Sugar Factories. The scheme envisages contributions both from the management and the workers in the industries employing 500 or more workers. The Sugar Factories at Barachakia and Chanpatia have been given each Rs. 12,000 annually towards the welfare and recreational activities of the workers. The Voluntary Labour Welfare Centres subsidised by the Government is also another welfare scheme. According to this scheme Rs. 4,000 would be granted by the Government, Rs. 2,000 by the Labour Union and Rs. 1,000 by the Management for the purposes of equipment. The Management is to donate a plot of land and the building for the welfare centre as per Labour Department Plan. This subsidy has been granted to M. P. Sugar Works, Ltd., Majhaulia, Sugauli Sugar Works, Ltd., Sugauli, North Bihar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Bagaha, and Harinagar Sugar Mills, Ltd., Harinagar, during 1957-58.

An attempt has been made to put the employees of shops and establishments on a similar footing with factory workers by the promulgation of the Bihar Shops and Establishment Act which was enforced in the municipal limit of Motihari town from the 1st April 1957. It has to be administered by the District Labour Officer who is also the Inspecting Officer under the Act. The Act provides for the security of workers in Shops and Establishment and regulates the hours of work, leave with wages, weekly holidays, payment of wages, etc. The Act, further, gives statutory rights to the employees to appeal against dismissal. The statistics below will give an idea as to how this Act has been enforced till the 19th December, 1957 :—

(*a*) Total number of shops in the municipal area.	935 (approx.).
(*b*) Total number of applications for registration received.	800
(*c*) Total registered	675
(*d*) Total revenue in the shape of registration fee.	Rs. 1,419.
(*e*) Total number of employees ..	950 (approx.).

PROHIBITION.

Prohibition has not been enforced in any part of the State of Bihar. During the First Congress Ministry certain areas were brought within the ambit of prohibition by legislation. But Champaran district was not within the prohibited area.

Although prohibition has not yet been promulgated the policy of the State Government is to control the consumption of intoxicants with a certain amount of strictness and to raise the prices. There has been a gradual increase in the prices of most of the intoxicants. The excise shops are also under close supervision. The premises of any country liquor shop cannot be used for drinking bouts. The idea is that if people will have to take their liquor home for drinking, there will be lesser consumption. Since 1st April, 1959 the sale of opium for oral consumption is strictly regulated. Opium could only be procured under medical certificate. It is to be remembered that this district produced a very big output of opium in the last century.

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES.

Castes which at first worked like professional or occupational guilds crystallised into sections in the society with fixed status. This tendency became hardened and the so-called upper or higher castes raised barriers and taboos around them to consolidate their position and the aloofness created conventions to which the castes became prisoners. A great portion of the society remained backward and they were the so-called lower castes, backward classes and tribes. Occasional attempts had been made in the past by individual thinkers and preachers to tear down the barriers. The State had also tried to ameliorate the condition of the backward classes and tribes from time to time.

However, since the first quarter of the twentieth century, the advancement of backward classes and tribes, has been taken up by social and political leaders. Untouchability which formed the root cause of so many evils was sought to be removed first by education and then by law. All the educational institutions and temples have now been thrown open to them. The scheduled class students have been given special facilities for education. Education for their children has been made free, handsome stipends are given to prosecute further studies and they are also treated more favourably for Government employment. They are also given agricultural subsidies and other special relief measures. The State has also taken interest among them. The Bhoodan movement sponsored by Shri Vinoba Bhave aims at this.

It has been mentioned elsewhere that Gandhiji's first struggle for independence in India took place in the district of Champaran. Gandhiji did not fight only for the political rights of the *raiyats* for not growing indigo forcibly but he tried to improve their social condition also. As soon as in 1916 he realised that lack of education facilities and social backwardness of particularly the women folk had helped the planters considerably, he took upon himself a scheme of social work for the advancement of the backward classes. He opened a number of schools in the interior of the Bettiah subdivision and put them under teachers who were some of his selfless followers. These men and women made the schools not merely a teaching centre but they taught self help by cooking their own food, washing their own clothes and cleaning their own lavatories. The schools unfortunately were allowed to die out when Gandhiji left the district.

This district has a large number of Tharus, Dhangars, Oraons, Doms and other sections which go under the caption of backward classes and tribes. The European planters had imported a large number of Oraons and Dhangars from Chotanagpur as they solved the problem of labour very cheaply. Simple and improvident, these Dhangars and Oraons had worked as serfs for generations and they had till late, very little of food or cloth beyond the mere subsistence. The Tharus were allowed to decline through their habits of improvidence and spirit of abandon in life. As soon as the crops of the Tharus would be ready the mahajans and the itinerant tradesmen would visit the Tharu villages and offer loans and cheap trinkets, cloth and other wares. The result was that the Tharus became grossly indebted.

Champaran district till very late had a number of European planters, and a few families of landed aristocracy headed by the Bettiah Raj. These leisured classes had the long purse at their back and they encouraged the development of a large community of servile classes like domestic servants, serfs, labourers, etc. In a way they encouraged the backwardness of certain so-called lower castes and tribes. Very little thought was given to their social amelioration or to give them something more than a meal and a piece of cloth. These vested interests kept up a climate of mediævalism where aristocracy of caste, community and power thrived at the cost of poverty or the backwardness of a particular section.

The work that had been started by Gandhiji had declined but was not completely forgotten. After the attainment of Independence the State took up the amelioration of the backward classes and tribes as a matter of policy. A separate department at Government level known as the Welfare Department was created. This department works through a District Welfare Office at the district level. The District Welfare Officer with his headquarters at Motihari works under the administrative control of the District Magistrate. The Welfare Officer has his own staff for the field and the office.

The following castes or groups were notified as Scheduled Castes under the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950 :—

(1) Bauri, (2) Bontar, (3) Chamar, (4) Bhogta, (5) Chauoal, (6) Dhobi, (7) Dom, (8) Dusadh (including Dhari and Dharhi), (9) Ghasi, (10) Halalkhor, (11) Hari (including Mehtar), (12) Kanjar, (13) Kurariar, (14) Lalbegi, (15) Mochi, (16) Mushahar, (17) Nat, (18) Pan, (19) Pasi, (20) Rajwar, (21) Turi, (22) Bhumij.

The following castes or groups of the Champaran district were notified as Scheduled Tribes under the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950 :—

(1) Asur, (2) Baiga, (3) Bathudi, (4) Bedia, (5) Binjhia, (6) Birhor, (7) Birjia, (8) Chero, (9) Chik Baraik, (10) Gond, (11) Gorait, (12) Ho, (13) Karmali, (14) Kharia, (15) Kharwar, (16) Khond, (17) Kisan, (18) Kora, (19) Korea, (20) Lohara, (21) Mahli, (22) Mal Paharia, (23) Munda, (24) Oraon, (25) Pahariya, (26) Santal, (27) Sauria Paharia, (28) Savar.

The following castes or groups of the Champaran district have been classified as Backward Classes. All others are included in the non-Backward category :—

(1) Bari, (2) Banpar, (3) Beldar, (4) Bhathiara (Muslims), (5) Bherihar, (6) Bhuiya, (7) Bind, (8) Chik (Muslim), (9) Dafali (Muslims), (10) Dhanuk, (11) Dhunia (Muslims), (12) Gorhi (incuding Chhabi), (13) Hajjam, (14) Kahar, (15) Kasab (Kasai-Muslims), (16) Kewat (Keut), (16A) Khatik, (17) Mali (Malakar), (18) Mallah (including Surahiya), (19) Madari (Muslims), (20) Miriasin (Muslims), (21) Nat (Muslims), (22) Noniya, (23) Pamaria (Muslims), (24) Sheikhra, (25) Tantis (Tatwas), (26) Turha, (27) Aghori, (28) Chain, (29) Dhamin, (30) Gandharb, (31) Khatwe, (32) Mangar (Magari), (33) Tharu, (34) Dhobi (Muslims), (35) Halalkhor (Muslims), (36) Lalbegi (Muslims), (37) Mehtar (Muslims).

The list above is general for the State. Many of these castes and groups are not found in Champaran district. As per census of 1951 the total population of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and Backward Classes was as follows :—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Scheduled Castes ..	1,84,593	1,89,537	3,74,130
Scheduled Tribes ..	11,422	9,576	20,998
Backward Classes ..	1,77,367	1,67,547	3,44,914

In 1951 census there was no castewise enumeration and hence we cannot get their respective strength. But the figures of some of the Scheduled Class and Backward Class people as per 1931 census will show that they form a quite sizeable population of this district. The strength according to 1931 census is as follows :—

Barahi	9,231
Dhanuk	12,663
Hajjam	26,105
Jolaha	97,598
Kahar	10,523
Kewat	2,725
Koiri	1,16,546
Mali	5,516
Mallah	75,327
Kurmi	1,00,981
Kumhar	21,914
Tanti	33,576
Teli	69,548
Kamarl	32,446
Pasi	3,147
Musahar	46,630
Kandu	76,199
Dosadh	94,242
Dom	7,186
Dhobi	23,301
Chamar	1,55,474
Halalkhor	3,309

The District Welfare Officer has multifarious functions. His duties cover the removal of disabilities of the backward classes and tribes, development of education by opening schools and arrangement of stipends to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, backward classes and backward Muslim communities, provision of hostels for students of those communities, arrangement for loans and subsidies, medical aid, grain-*golas,* sinking of wells, etc.

It will be seen that the programme is quite comprehensive but no proper work can be done unless there is a reciprocity among the classes outside the backward classes and tribes and a certain amount of self-help among the backward communities and tribes. The Welfare section at Champaran has been able to open 30 and 16 primary schools for the Harijans and the Tharus, respectively. There are hostels for scheduled tribes and castes at Ramnagar, Motihari, Bettiah, Adapur and Bhairoganj respectively. There are 30 grain-*golas* for the benefit of the Tharus and 12 for the scheduled castes. These grain-*golas* help the Harijans and aboriginals with loan of seeds and collect back the quantities loaned out when the crops are ready. These are run by individual stockists or by the department. An interest of 25 per cent in kind is levied. If 1 maund seed is loaned a maund and 10 seers is realised. On the average a *mahajan's* loan would work out at 50 per cent of the seed loaned out.

The Welfare Section has made a few houses for members of the scheduled castes and for ex-criminal tribes. These houses are scattered at the places where there are settlements of members of scheduled classes and tribes. A few wells have also been sunk.

The major part of the Tharuhat area has been covered by the Community Development Project and the National Extension Service Block. The Tharus have been treated elsewhere.

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS.

Trusts and charitable endowments are very few and their scope is very limited. They have very little influence on the social, cultural and material well being of the people. Most of these trusts are petty ones and meant for some temples or primary schools or a mosque. Some of the trusts are given below :—

(1) Shri Satya Narayan Temple—Shikarpur Trust, Bettiah.

(2) Thakurji Mahadeoji Temple at Pucca Ghat on the river Chandrabati, Bettiah.

(3) Dargah—Bettiah Trust, Bettiah.

(4) The Bishweshwar Nath Hindu Anathalaya and the Madan Lal Technical Vidyalaya, Bettiah.

The Bishweshwar Nath Hindu Anathalaya, a small orphanage, was started in 1947. Madan Lal Technical Vidyalaya was started in February, 1959. The idea originally was to give protection and education to the Hindu orphans but now educational facilities are given to the general public.

At the Madan Lal Technical Vidyalaya training is given in weaving, spinning, *dari*-making, *newar*-making, tailoring, curtain-making, etc. Besides these, teaching of Hindi, English and Sanskrit is also provided for.

The managements of the institution are under the Board of Trustees.

SOURCES OF INCOME.

So far no Government grant, Central or State, has been received except some discretionary grants of the Ministers and other Government Officers from time to time. The main source of income is the produce of the land gifted and certain cash donations received from the well-to-do persons.

CHAPTER XVII.

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATION.

FIRST GENERAL ELECTION OF 1952.

After the achievement of independence in 1947 the First General Election was held in 1952. This election presented a new feature in the history of representation because for the first time the election was held on the basis of adult franchise. In this election about 45 per cent of the population exercised their right of franchise. The other unique feature of the election was that it provided equal opportunity to women and the people of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes.

In the General Election of 1952 out of the total population of 25,15,343 in the district 11,34,281 were eligible for franchise. There were two constituencies, Champaran North and Champaran East for the purpose of the *Lok Sabha* (House of the People). As mentioned in the *District Gazetteer of Saran* a few constituencies of Saran were joined with Champaran which is called Saran-*cum*-Champaran constituency for which the Commissioner of the Tirhut Division was the Returning Officer. The details of these constituencies are as follows :—

Name of Constituency.	Number of seats.	Number of electors.	Total no. of votes.	Total no. of valid votes polled.	Percentage.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Saran-*cum*-Champaran	2	6,94,144	13,88,288	4,38,883	31.6
2. Champaran North ..	1	3,41,318	3,41,318	1,04,179	30.5
3. Champaran East ..	1	3,27,728	3,27,728	1,38,767	42.3

For four seats there were 14 contesting candidates. The Indian National Congress and Socialist Party contested all the four Parliamentary seats, Jan Sangh one, Kisan Majdoor Praja Party one, Forward Block (Marxist) one and the Independents contested three seats. The Indian National Congress captured all the four

Parliamentary seats. The number of valid votes polled by each of the contesting party was as follows :—

Party.	Number of valid votes polled.
1. Congress	3,65,233
2. Socialist	1,53,365
3. Independents	89,704
4. Jan Sangh	28,959
5. Kisan Majdoor Praja Party ..	21,907
6. Forward Block (Marxist)	22,661
Total	6,81,829

Thus from the above table it is apparent that the Indian National Congress fared better in the Parliamentary seats than the combined strength of the opposite party as the number of votes polled by the former was 3,65,233 or 53.50 per cent as against 3,16,596 or 46.50 per cent by the latter.

For the *Vidhan Sabha* (Legislative Assembly) there were 17 constituencies consisting of 20 seats in the district. The details of the constituencies were as follows :—

Name of constituency.	Number of seats.	Number of electors.	Total no. of votes.	Total no. of valid votes polled.	Percentage..
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Bagha-*cum*-Ram Nagar.	2	1,18,509	2,37,018	72,910	30.76
2. Sikarpur-*cum*-Lauria.	2	1,23,052	2,46,104	63,568	23.73
3. Sikta ..	1	45,952	45,952	16,440	35.77
4. Dhanaha ..	1	53,805	53,805	15,065	27.99
5. Bettiah ..	1	66,151	66,151	25,113	37.96
6. Nautan ..	1	52,172	52,172	18,194	34.87
7. Sugauli ..	1	69,403	69,403	26,348	37.96
8. Harsidhi ..	1	51,795	51,795	16,554	31.96
9. Motihari-*cum*-Pipra	2	1,05,469	2,10,938	62,970	29.85

The details are not given in the *Saran District Gazetteer*. Therefore the figures are quoted here.

Name of constituency.	Number of seats.	Number of electors	Total no. of votes.	Total no. of valid votes polled.	Percentage.
1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Raxaul ..	1	51,179	51,179	19,101	37.32
11. Adapur ..	1	53,529	53,529	19,957	36.90
12. Ghorasahan ..	1	59,531	59,531	24.253	40.74
13. Dhaka ..	1	57,698	57,698	26,554	45.3
14. Patahi ..	1	44,626	44,626	22,857	51.11
15. Madhuban ..	1	59,165	59,165	25,874	43.73
16. Gobindganj ..	1	65,727	65,727	20,382	31.91
17. Kesaria ..	1	56,518	56,518	16,187	27.49

For the 20 *Vidhan Sabha* seats there were 89 contesting candidates—20 of the nominees of the Indian National Congress, 16 of the Socialist Party, 7 of the Forward Block (Marxist), 34 Independents, 3 of the Hindu Maha Sabha, 6 of the Jan Sangh, 1 of Communist Party. Out of the 20 Assembly seats the Indian National Congress captured 19 and the remaining one was bagged by the Socialist Party.

In the General Election of 1952 in Champaran 4,92,127 valid votes were cast out of which the Indian National Congress secured 2,50,930 or about 50.75 per cent of the total votes polled, the Socialist Party 73,458, the Forward Block (Marxist) 28,293, the Independents 1,09,895, the Jan Sangh 11,691, the Hindu Maha Sabha 10,616, U. Kisan Sabha 2,207, Communist 4,255 and the Kisan Majdoor Praja Party secured 882 votes. Thus on the whole in the *Vidhan Sabha* election also the Indian National Congress fared better than the other political parties as the number of the combined votes of the opposite parties was 2,41,197 as against 2,50,930 by the Indian National Congress.

It is noteworthy to mention here that the women took keen interest in the election and in some cases they fared better than the males. One was elected as the member of the *Vidhan Sabha* from the Nautan constituency. The cases of mal-practices and false personation were practically negligible.

THE SECOND GENERAL ELECTION, 1957.

The Second General Election was held in 1957 on the basis of the electoral rolls prepared in 1952 subject to modification made therein in course of five years. So far as the *Lok Sabha* was concerned there were exclusively 2 constituencies consisting of 3 seats in the district and as before the Kesaria Parliamentary constituency (like

Saran-*cum*-Champaran in 1952) was formed with some constituencies of Champaran, Saran and Muzaffarpur districts of which the Returning Officer was the Commissioner of the Tirhut Division. The details of the Parliamentary constituencies are given below :—

Name of the constituencies.		Number of seats.	Number of electors.	Number of votes.	Total no. of valid votes polled.	Percentage.
1		2	3	4	5	6
1. Bagaha	..	1	3,00,750	3,00,750	1,01,822	33.80
2. Champaran	..	2	6,79,590	13,59,180	4,84,364	35.21
3. Kesaria	..	1	3,39,047	3,39,047	1,31,716	37.00

Thus out of the total votes of 19,98,977 (including Kesaria) for the Parliamentary seats 7,17,902 or about 35 per cent valid votes were polled. For the four Parliamentary seats there were 12 contesting candidates in the field—4 of the Congress, 4 of the Praja Socialist Party, 2 of the Communist Party and 2 were Independents. All the four Parliamentary seats were captured by the Indian National Congress. Out of the total valid votes polled of 7,17,902, 4,62,047 were secured by the Congress, 1,85,056 by the Praja Socialist Party, 61,107 by the Communist Party and 9,692 by the Independents. On the basis of votes also the Congress fared better than the opposite parties as the former secured 4,62,047 votes as against 2,55,855 combined votes of the latter.

For the Bihar Vidhan Sabha there were 18 constituencies in Champaran consisting of 21 seats and for them there were 73 candidates—21 of the nominees of the Indian National Congress, 13 of the Praja Socialist Party, 10 of the Janta Party, 3 of the Jan Sangh, 7 of the Communist Party and 19 were Independents. Out of the 21 Assembly seats 16 were captured by the Indian National Congress Party, 1 by the Communist Party, 1 by the Praja Socialist Party and 3 by the Independents. Out of the total of 21 seats, 3 were secured by the women candidates of the Indian National Congress. The details of these constituencies are given below :—

Name of the Constituencies.		Number of seats.	Number of electors.	Number of votes.	Number of valid votes polled.	Percentage.
1		2	3	4	5	6
1. Dhanaha	..	1	50,787	50,787	17,571	34.60
2. Bagaha	..	2	1,06,144	2,12,288	68,357	32.20
3. Shikarpur	..	1	49,884	49,884	17,640	35.40

Name of the constituencies.	Number of seats	Number of electors.	Number of votes.	Number of valid votes polled	Percentage.
1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Sikta	1	41,603	41,603	14,392	34.60
5. Lauria	1	52,382	52,382	15,811	30.18
6. Chanpatia	1	59,407	59,407	16.015	26.96
7. Bettiah	2	1,10,770	2,21,540	65,541	29.58
8. Raxaul	1	58,875	58,875	22,944	38.93
9. Adapur	1	67,427	67,427	24,209	35.90
10. Motihari	2	1,01,205	2,02,410	74,299	36.70
11. Ghorasahan	1	57,791	57,791	21,096	36.50
12. Dhaka	1	62,174	62,174	26,222	42.17
13. Patahi	1	55,291	55,291	25,585	46.27
14. Madhuban	1	66,647	66,647	26,893	40.35
15. Kesaria	1	50,226	50,226	22,098	43.99
16. Pipra	1	54,834	54,834	19,281	35.40
17. Harshidhi	1	61,089	61,089	23,781	38.93
18. Gobindganj	1	45,561	45,561	19,490	42.78

Thus out of the total votes of 14,67,216 in Champaran 5,21,225 or about 34 per cent valid votes were cast. Out of the total of 5,21,225 valid votes 2,69,944 were secured by the Congress Party and 2,51,281 of the combined votes of the Praja Socialist Party, the Janta Party, Jan Sangh, Communist Party and the Independents.

NEWSPAPERS.

As regards the newspapers of the district four weeklies in Hindi are published from Motihari except one published from Bettiah. They are (*i*) *Angar,* (*ii*) *Sabera,* (*iii*) *Masal* and (*iv*) *Nayee Abaj,* in which the last one had to suspend its publication in the year 1956.

All these papers have a local circulation and publish more of local and provincial news.

Angar was started in 1953. It is published from Motihari. It is an independent journal, not attached to any party.

The other weekly journals, *Nayee Abaz, Sabera* and *Masal* (a fortnightly journal), commenced from 1956.

The Indian Nation, The *Aryavarta,* The *Searchlight, Pradeep,* all either English or Hindi dailies published from Patna have a fairly good circulation here. The *Amrita Bazar Patrika, Hindustan Standard, The Statesman, Ananda Bazar Patrika, Yugantar,* all in English except the last which is Bengali dailies have also good circulation here. It can be said that the demand of the public for newspapers, is fulfilled mostly from outside the district.

SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS.

The voluntary social service organisations of local importance are (*i*) Bharat Sewak Samaj, (*ii*) Bharat Scouts and Guide, (*iii*) the Bettiah *Baderia Yateem Khana* (orphanage), (*iv*) Motihari Sports Club, (*v*) Champaran District Sports Association, (*vi*) Bhartendu Sangh, (*vii*) Social Service Squad of M. S. College, Motihari, (*viii*) Depressed Classes League, (*ix*) Bengali Institute, Motihari, etc. Of these organisations, the first two are branches while the rest are local ones.

Bharat Sewak Samaj.—The Bharat Sewak Samaj which has been recognised as an agent of the voluntary sector of the Plan, was organised as a district branch in Champaran in 1953. Since then it is functioning here with its branches in 20 out of 24 thanas of the district. It has its regular office and operates through its following wings :—

(*i*) Information Section, (*ii*) Anti-Corruption Section, (*iii*) *Mahila* Section, and (*iv*) Youth and Camp Section.

Through its Information Section effort is made to popularise the working of the Plan.

In its Anti-Corruption Section, a worker is employed to help the litigant public in their difficulties. Through the *Mahila* Section, steps are taken to bring the ladies to constructive work.

Through the Youths and Camp section, local and district Camps have been organised at some places in the district.

Bharat Sewak Samaj has also arranged for sanitation drives and relief work during the time of heavy floods or droughts.

Bharat Scouts and Guide.—Bharat Scouts and Guide is a semi-Government social service organisation having troops in some fifty High and Middle Schools of the district.

Bettiah Baderiya Yateem Khana.—There is one orphanage at Bettiah, known as *Yateem Khana Baderiya,* Bettiah. This institution was established in 1942 for the maintenance of the orphan boys and girls up to a period when they should be trained in a manner to benefit them for any profitable employment.

This orphanage at present (1959) maintains 73 boys and 24 girls, 97 in all.

For general education of boys and girls there is one school recognised by the Government upto VII class. Besides this, there are separate schools, one each for boys and girls, where technical education is imparted. The boys' school named Sobai Santo Hirfat Karkhana, has one teacher for each of the subjects like weaving, shoe making, tailoring and blacksmithy. And in this way the girls' school named Madaeseya Niswan, Darul Benat (Girls' home) has three teachers for giving general knowledge, one for tailoring and one for *majhabi talim*. In all these schools there are 152 boys and girls, taking training, who include both the mates of the *Yatim Khana* and the outsiders.

As regards the sources of income, there is no fixed arrangement but it has been somewhat conventional among the persons of this locality to contribute regularly for this institution. For instance, when grains, after threshing, etc., become ready for being stocked, a portion of them is separated for the orphanage. Recently (1958) a sanction of Rs. 11,600 has been made and extension of the present establishment had been started.

THE SPORTS CLUB, MOTIHARI.

The Sports Club is the oldest institution of the Motihari town. It was established by late W. S. Irvine, the proprietor of the Motihari Indigo Concern in 1911. Mr. Irvine donated land for the playground and also got a building erected on it for the club. The main objective of the founder of this institution was to make the school boys sports-minded and the fee for membership was kept at only two annas per month. The club used to arrange for outdoor games like football, tennis, etc., and the indoor games like cards, chess, carrom, etc. Besides these the club had a very good library of its own. In the beginning the club was primarily a student's club, but now the membership is thrown open to adults. The membership fee has been raised from two annas to rupee one.

THE CHAMPARAN DISTRICT SPORTS ASSOCIATION.

This Association was organised in 1944. It is affiliated to the Bihar State Sports Association which forms part of an All-India Organisation. The main work of this Association is to give affiliation to sporting clubs and teams of the district. It runs several trophies for different games. The Association has done good work in the field of physical education.

BHARTENDU SANGH, MOTIHARI.

The Bhartendu Sangh was formed in 1939 to commemorate late Shri Bhartendu Harischandra who is a landmark in modern Hindi literature. The Sangh has a library containing about a thousand books. The Sangh is trying to bring standard Hindi literature within easy access of the public.

SOCIAL SERVICE SQUAD OF M. S. COLLEGE, MOTIHARI.

The Social Service Squad of M. S. College, Motihari was organised in the year 1950. The aim of the squad is to carry on rural uplift work, education and allied social services in villages round about the college. The squad selected Kolawarva, as the first centre to begin the work of village uplift.

DEPRESSED CLASSES LEAGUE.

Through the efforts of Shri Jagjiwan Ram, Railway Minister, Government of India and a few others this League has been organised throughout India. The branch at Champaran is closely associated with social reforms among the Harijans.

Originally the League had mainly political activities. During the Round Table Conference in 1932-33 this was an independent organisation although it had affiliations with the Indian National Congress. In 1936-37 Election the League had run candidates in collaboration with the Congress. It is now essentially a body for bringing in social reforms and removal of untouchability.

BENGALI INSTITUTE.

This institute has the arrangement for a library called Beenapani Library (estd. 1918), dramatic club, religious functions, indoor games and physical culture. The library with almost 2,000 books of Bengali, Hindi and English languages serve as a centre of knowledge and exchange of thoughts. About the religious functions of the Institute special mention may be made of their performance of Buddha Jayanti. The Institution has a building of its own.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PLACES OF INTEREST.

ADAPUR.—A village in Sadar subdivision at a distance of 20 miles north-east from Motihari. There is a police thana, an Anchal Office and a combined Post and Telegraph Office. Adapur is a growing township.

ARERAJ.—*See* Lauriya Areraj.

BAGAHA.—A township with a future in the Bettiah subdivision situated on the eastern bank of the Great Gandak, 35 miles north-east of Bettiah. It is the headquarters of the thana. There is a State hospital with 6 beds, 4 for males and 2 for females. There is a veterinary hospital with its jurisdiction throughout Bagaha police-station. There is a union board's office, a combined post and telegraph office, an inspection bungalow, one high school, one upper primary school, one lower primary school, one Sanskrit *pathshala* and one library. There is an office of the Sub-Registrar. Bagaha is connected with Bhainsalotan by a P. W. D. road.

Ideally situated in a sugarcane area Bagaha has a big sugar mill, viz., the North Bihar Sugar Mill, Ltd., with a capacity to crush 900 tons per day. The sugar mill maintains one upper primary school and a club. Bagaha is the terminus of Bairagania-Bagaha branch of the North-Eastern Railway. It commands a large trade in grains and timber. Timber from Nepal is brought to Bagaha and from here it is transported by river, road or railway. It has a sizeable bazar. Sweets and curd of Bagaha are supposed to be very good.

In 1951 census Bagaha was recorded to have a population of 5,820 persons consisting of 3,044 males and 2,776 females. Out of this population, 161 males and 206 females were engaged in production other than cultivation, 206 males and 355 females in commerce, 302 males and 60 females in transport and 808 males and 508 females in other services and miscellaneous sources. In agricultural classes, 47 males and 54 females were recorded as non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants; 1,520 males and 1,593 females as cultivators, cultivating labourers and their dependants respectively. It is the headquarters of the Bagaha I and II Anchal-*cum*-Development Blocks.

It is on the Great Gandak which has been identified with *Kondochates* of the Greek Geographers. It is also known as the Narayani and the Salgrami (from the *salgram* stones found in the bed of the river). The Champakaranya of the *Puranas,* the retreat of ascetics of olden days, stretched along the Narayani river, has given the name to the district of Champaran.

BARA.—This township is now known as Chakia and has a future. The place is served by the Chakia railway station which has a heavy booking for grains and sugarcane. The population has gone up and in 1951 census it was recorded as 5,817 persons out of which 3,003 were males and 2,814 were females. The Champaran Sugar Company, Ltd., Bara Chakia has a daily cane-crushing capacity of 932 tons. The sugar mill has encouraged a sizeable bazar which has also some turnover in jute, kerosene oil and grains. The State Electricity Board has a power station at Chakia. Power is supplied to Motihari town from here and also for irrigational purposes in the neighbourhood.

The place has a combined post and telegraph office, a high school and schools of other standards, a cinema hall and a number of tea shops. It is an important halting station for the passenger bus services. Out of the total population of 5,817, 655 males and 448 females were recorded as engaged in production other than cultivation, 684 males and 591 females in commerce, 62 males and 37 females in transport, and 369 males and 260 females in other services and miscellaneous sources. In the agricultural classes, 10 males and 4 females were recorded as non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants and 1,223 males and 1,474 females as cultivators, cultivating labourers and their dependants respectively. It has an Anchal Office.

BARGAON.—An important village in Bettiah subdivision is about 5 miles from Bagaha. According to 1951 census Bagaha has a population of 2,183 persons consisting of 1,098 males and 1,085 females. There is one upper primary school, one basic school, one post office, one Sanskrit *Pathshala* and one library.

Bargaon once had the Salvation Army Settlement for Doms at Chautarwa. The Doms are no longer in surveillance although their interests are looked after by a State Government Officer. The Dom settlements at Chautarwa are engaged in making *jharus, duris* and other textiles. The Doms also work on the land.

BAWANGARHI.—The following description occurs in the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* revised by R. E. Swanzy in 1932: "A name, meaning 52 forts, given to the remains of some old fortifications near Darwabari, in the extreme north-western corner of the district, about five miles from Tribeni. The place is also called Tirpan Bazar or the 53 bazars, and the name Darwabari appears to mean the door of the place. Darwabari itself is a small village on the edge of the forest, with swamps to the east. The remains of the 52 forts and 53 bazars are at a short distance to the north, and include some ruins known as the Kachahri. Also, nearby are an old tank and a curious well on the edge of which there are rude stone representations of alligators. To the north-west across the swamp are remains of massive embankments, which may perhaps have been intended to serve as lines of circumvallation or as reservoirs.

"No trustworthy information can be obtained as to the history of Bawangarhi, though Mr. Vincent Smith hazards the opinion that it is just possible that it is identical with Ramagrama, the ancient city visited by the Chinese pilgrims Fa Hian and Hiuen Tsiang.

It forms the subject of various traditions, one of which connects it with the lives of the Pandavas, who are said to have spent the weary years of their exile in the neighbouring forest. According to another legend, it was the residence of a chief called Baora, who is said to have been contemporaneous with the Simraon dynasty; it has been conjectured that the forts were erected by this Raja as a retreat for himself and his followers from the invasion or depredations of his more powerful neighbours to the south and the hill tribes of Nepal to the north. Another tradition is that there was a chain of 52 forts erected by immigrants from South Bihar, who came here under a leader called Bhim Singh, and continued to hold this tract under a number of petty chieftains. The general belief is that the surrounding country was once thickly populated, and this belief is confirmed by the remains of walls, with tanks and wells inside them, as well as by the deserted villages, plantations and mango groves found in this part of the district.

"The following legend regarding Bawangarhi, which forms one of the favourite songs of the Nats, was discovered by Mr. W. R. Bright, C.S.I., when Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah. At one time the Rajas of Bawangarhi were two brothers, Jasor (the elder) and Torar, the former of whom had two sons, Allaha and Ruddal, and the latter two sons, named Jhagru and Jaman. Disputes arose between them, which ended in their agreeing to divide their kingdom, but when they came to divide a mango orchard containing five trees on the banks of the Gandak, a quarrel broke out in which Torar was killed by Jasor. Torar's son Jhagru avenged his father's death and would probably have also killed Jasor's widow and her sons, had she not escaped with them to Sagarpokhra at Bettiah. Thence she went to various friends only to be expelled by them as soon as Jhagru heard that they were giving her shelter, until at last in despair she wandered out with her two sons into the forest hoping that they would be killed by wild beasts. It happened, however, that the Benares Raja passed through the forest on a hunting expedition and having found the mother and her children, had compassion on her and took them to Benares. For two years they lived there, until Jhagru heard of it and at once demanded their expulsion. From Benares she wandered to Kalinjar where Allaha attained his majority, and having shown some skill in war was given the fortress of Mahuagarh. Having learnt his history, he travelled off in the garb of a *fakir* to Bawangarhi, and while sitting by the great *jhil* which is still a prominent feature of the place, saw his father's corpse hanging on a tree and being daily scourged by Jhagru. When he went up to the tree to take the corpse down, his father's spirit told him that he must win it by force of arms and not by theft. He was afterwards recognised by Jhagru, but managed to escape on an old horse, which recognised him, to Mahuagarh. Having collected a large force there, he attacked Bawangarhi, but met with a decisive defeat at the hands of Jhagru and became his prisoner.

The tables were turned by the skill in witchcraft possessed by his wife, who overcame the spell cast by Jhagru's mother and released her husband and other captives. A battle ensued in which Jhagru was defeated, taken prisoner, and then killed; and Allaha after dividing the Raj between his aunt and a female servant of his, left the place and returned home ".

BEDIBAN.—The following description occurs in the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* revised by R. E. Swanzy in 1932 : " A village situated in the south-east of the headquarters subdivision, about half a mile north-east of the Pipra railway station and about a mile to the south of Sitakund. The village contains the remains of an old fort, 925 feet long from north to south and 670 feet broad, with an average height of 12 feet above the surrounding country. The ramparts, which appear to be of earth only, are covered with trees and surrounded by a broad shallow ditch. Close to the northern end of the enclosure there is a lofty terrace, 20 feet high, surrounded by a brick wall, with two long flights of steps on the north and the east. On the western half of this terrace stands a Hindu temple, a domed building with a verandah or portico on the entrance side, which faces the east. The only object of worship in this shrine is a stone with a Muhammadan inscription, which is called *Bhagwan-ka-Charanpad,* or the foot prints of *Bhagwan.* The stone is two feet square and one foot thick, with seven lines of Arabic writing in the usual raised letters. Unfortunately the daily libations of *ghi* and water have injured the letters so much that the record is not very legible; but General Cunningham was able to decipher the name of Mahmud Shah, whom he identified with Mahmud Sharki, King of Jaunpur (1450 A. D.). He was of opinion that not only was this Arabic inscription adopted as an object of Hindu worship, but that the temple itself had originally been a Muhammadan tomb which the Hindus appropriated. This, if true, would be a remarkable fact, as the reverse has generally been the case; but the style of the temple is not unusual in Bihar and does not point to a Muhammadan origin. (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Vol. XVI, *Report, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle,* 1901-02) ".

The stone that has been referred to in the above description forms the subject-matter of an article in Bihar Research Society Journal, Vol. XLI, Part II, 1955 (June issue) by Sri S. V. Sohoni, I.C.S.* The stone has since been removed and is in the Patna Museum. This had ceased to be an object of worship long before. The temple itself is in a dilapidated condition and has been abandoned by the people of the locality.

There are remains of an old building in the jungle near the village. This is said to be the " Pippali-Kanan " (jungle of Pippali) where Emperor Chandragupta was born and built the temple of Areraj (*vide* Areraj). It is a small village which has a population of 244 consisting of 120 males and 124 females according to the census of 1951.

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* Inscription of Md. Bin-Yusuf at Bediban. This inscription is our earliest indication of Bediban Mehsi area assuming administrative importance (P. C. R. C.)

BETTIAH RAJ.—The following description occurs in the *District Gazetteer of Champaran* revised by R. E. Swanzy in 1932: "A great estate extending over 14,43,073 acres. It belongs to a Babhan family over 250 years old, which traces its descent from one Ujjain Singh whose son, Gaj Singh, received the title of Raja from the Emperor Shah Jehan (1628—1658). The family came into prominence in the eighteenth century during the time of the downfall of the Mughal Empire when we find frequent references made by Muhammadan historians to the Rajas of Bettiah as independent chiefs. Thus, in the Riyazus-Salatin, the Raja is described as a refractory and turbulent chief, whose territory had never acknowledged the dominion of any of the Subahdars. In order to subdue this chief Ali Vardi Khan led an expedition against him in 1729, and brought him and his territory under subjection. Subsequently, in 1784, the Raja seems to have entered into an alliance with the Afghan rebel chief of Darbhanga and gave shelter to their families during their revolt against the Bengal Viceroy; when the Afghans were defeated by Ali Vardi Khan, he offered to atone for his contumacy with a contribution of 3 lakhs of rupees. In 1759 Caillud advanced against the fort of Bettiah, and compelled the Raja to submit; in 1762 another expedition was sent against him by Mir Kasim Ali Khan and his fort was again captured; and in 1766 a third expedition under Sir Robert Barker was necessary to establish British authority. A more detailed account of these transactions will be found in Chapter II.

At the time when Sarkar Champaran passed under British rule, it was in the possession of Jugal Keshwar Singh, who succeeded Raja Dhurup Singh in 1763. This Raja soon came into conflict with the East India Company. He fell into arrears of revenue, and in the words of the Judges of the Diwani Adalat "rebelled and fought with the forces of the British Government, was defeated and fled to Bundelkhand for safety and his Rajgi was seized upon and brought under the direct management of the Company". The attempts to manage the estate proved, however, a complete failure; and the Company finding that its revenue grew less and less, persuaded Jugal Keshwar Singh to return. They then settled with him parganas Majhawa and Simraon, the remainder of the district being given to his cousins, Sri Kishan Singh and Abdhut Singh and forming Sheohar Raj. The same two parganas of Majhawa and Simraon were settled with Bir Keshwar Singh, the son of Jugal Keshwar Singh, at the Decennial Settlement in 1791, and still constitute the greater part of the Bettiah Raj Estate. Bir Keshwar Singh played a prominent part in the disputes that led to the Nepalese war, and was succeeded in 1816 by Anand Keshwar Singh, on whom Lord William Bentick conferred the title of Maharaja Bahadur as a reward for services rendered. On the death of his successor, Newal Keshwar Singh in 1855, the estate passed to Rajendra Keshwar who, in the words of the Lieutenant-Governor, gave at the time of the Mutiny "praiseworthy aid and support to Government during the whole progress of the rebellion". The title of Maharaja Bahadur was also given to this Raja and to his son, Harendra Keshwar Singh, the last Maharaja of Bettiah, who was subsequently made a K.C.I.E. and died in 1893. He left no children and was succeeded by his senior widow, who died in 1896. The estate, which has been under the management of the Court of Wards since 1897, is at present held by the Maharaja's junior widow, Maharani Janki Kuar, who is styled Maharani by courtesy. Her title to the estate has been contested on three occasions. Babu Ramnandan Singh and Babu Girijanandan Singh of Sheohar each in turn laid claim to the estate, but their claims were disallowed by the Privy Council in 1902.

The Manager of the estate who for the last few years has been an Indian Civil Servant on deputation, has his headquarters at Bettiah and the estate property in Champaran is divided into circles, i.e., Rajpore Sihoria, Bettiah, Motihari, Peeprah, and Turkaulia. Besides the property in this district, the estate also possesses landed property in the districts of Muzaffarpur, Patna, Saran, Mirzapur, Allahabad, Basti, Gorakhpur, Fyzabad and Benares. The property in the six districts last mentioned is now under the Court of Wards, United Provinces. The land revenue and cesses due from the estate amount to Rs. 6 lakhs and the collection of rent and cesses to nearly 29 lakhs. Compared to former years, a small portion only of the estate is now held on permanent leases by European planters. The loan of £ 2,45,000 negotiated in London in 1855 was paid off in the year 1925. The great majority of the permanent leases have been redeemed by the estate since the final repayment of this loan".

The estate used to maintain two large and well-equipped hospitals—the King Edward Memorial Hospital for males and Maharani Janki Kuar hospital for females. This hospital was run by the W. M. S. and maintained from Lady Dufferin Fund. The Bettiah Raj made very large endowments and the hospital was called after Maharani Janki Kuar. Both the hospitals are now provincialised. Since the abolition of zamindari the hospitals are run by the State. It has a dairy farm at Byreah a few miles from Bettiah. It also maintains a high English school and has got a market known as the Mina Bazar.

The Bettiah Estate maintained its own Engineering offices, staff and engineer, who was of the standing of the Executive Engineer.

The subsequent history of the estate may be briefly described. Maharani Janki Kuar died at Allahabad on 27th November, 1954. As the estate was already under Court of Wards because Maharani

Janki Kuar was incapable of running the zamindari there was no change in the administration. With the abolition of zamindari the Bettiah estate vested in the Government in 1954. The State Government administered the erstwhile Bettiah estate through a Manager, a permanent resident in Bettiah who was once a Deputy Inspector-General of Police. The following geneaological table of Bettiah Raj is quoted from a Hindi book '*Champaran*' whose author is Bam Bahadur Singh and the book was published on the 10th September, 1938 :—

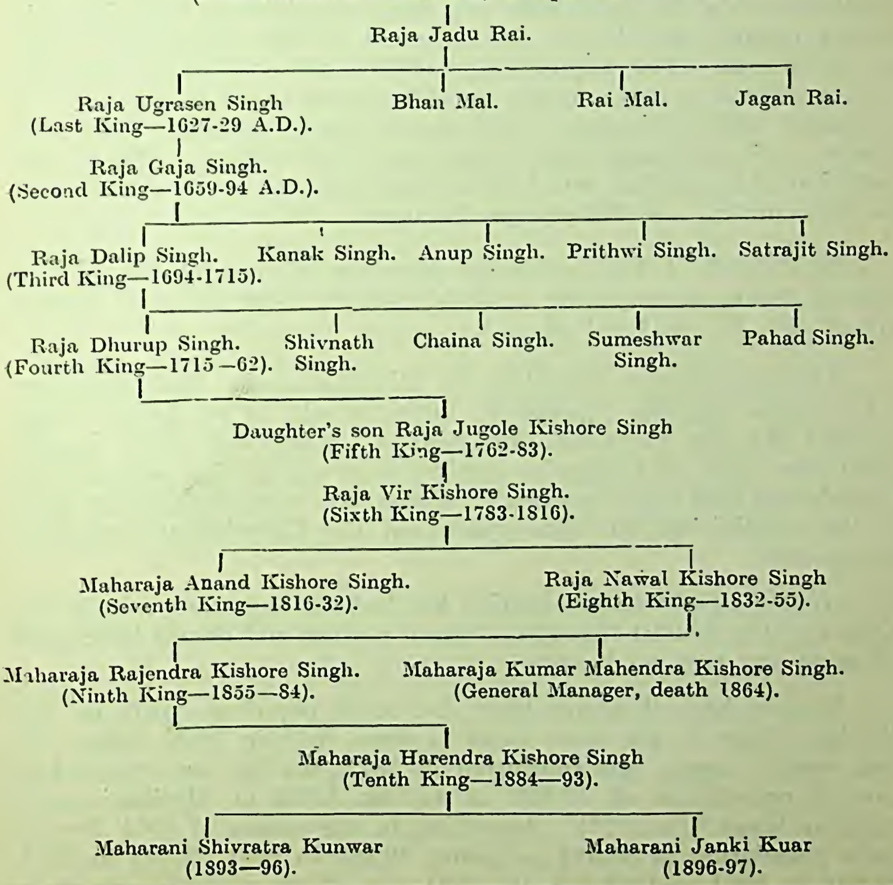
GENEAOLOGICAL TABLE OF BETTIAH RAJ.*

(DESCENDANTS OF RAJA GANGESHWAR DEVA)

1244 A. D.

Raja Udaya Karna Singh

(Prominent Courtier of Emperor Akbar).


Raja Jadu Rai.
Raja Ugrasen Singh (Last King—1627-29 A.D.).
Bhan Mal.
Rai Mal.
Jagan Rai.
Raja Gaja Singh. (Second King—1659-94 A.D.).
Raja Dalip Singh. (Third King—1694-1715).
Kanak Singh.
Anup Singh.
Prithwi Singh.
Satrajit Singh.
Raja Dhurup Singh. (Fourth King—1715—62).
Shivnath Singh.
Chaina Singh.
Sumeshwar Singh.
Pahad Singh.
Daughter's son Raja Jugole Kishore Singh (Fifth King—1762-83).
Raja Vir Kishore Singh. (Sixth King—1783-1816).
Maharaja Anand Kishore Singh. (Seventh King—1816-32).
Raja Nawal Kishore Singh (Eighth King—1832-55).
Maharaja Rajendra Kishore Singh. (Ninth King—1855—84).
Maharaja Kumar Mahendra Kishore Singh. (General Manager, death 1864).
Maharaja Harendra Kishore Singh (Tenth King—1884—93).
Maharani Shivratra Kunwar (1893—96).
Maharani Janki Kuar (1896-97).

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*[*] *Vide Champaran* Op.p.90—Bambahadur Singh, Nepali, 'Magan, published 10th September 1938, Sagar Pokhra, Bettiah. The Editor does not vouch for the authenticity of the table (P. C. R. C.)

The history of Bettiah Raj is in a way the history of the district. The very important role that the great Bettiah Raj family played has been covered in the text on " History ".

BETTIAH SUBDIVISION.—The northern subdivision of the district lying between 26° 36′ and 27° 31′ N. and 83° 50′ and 94° 46′ E. and having an area of 1,997 square miles according to the census of 1951 (the District Gazetteer of 1938 mentions 2,013 square miles). The southern portion of the subdivision is a level alluvial plain but towards the north-west the surface is more undulating and rises gradually near the Nepal frontier. From the north-western corner a range and low hills extend in a south-easterly direction for a distance of some 20 miles. Between this range and the Someshwar range which extends along the whole of the northern frontier lies the Dun valley. Rice is the main crop grown, particularly in the northern and eastern portions of the subdivision, but the area under sugarcane has increased considerably during recent years due to the existence of nine large sugar mills in the district. The population in 1951 was recorded as 10,71,382 and the density of population as 536 persons per square mile as compared with an average of 713 for the whole district. The headquarters are at Bettiah and there are 1,346 villages. Before the abolition of zamindari, the bulk of the subdivision was included in the Bettiah Raj and Ramanagar Estates.

BETTIAH TOWN.—Bettiah, the largest town of the district and the headquarters of the subdivision of the same name, is situated in 25° 48′ N. 84° 30′ E.

The last *District Gazetteer of Champaran* in 1938 mentions " The name Bettiah (properly Betia) is said to be derived from the fact that the place was once famous for its cane (*bent*) jungle. Even now cane of a superior quality is found on the banks of the Chandrawat and other streams ". Canes still grow in different parts of the subdivision but cane groves on the Chandrawat have now disappeared.

History of the town.—Bettiah has had an important role in the history of the district through different periods and details have been given in the text on history.

Bettiah has all along been the most populous town in this district. Even in the first sample census held in 1869, before the first regular census was conducted in 1872, Bettiah was recorded to have a population of 13,786 as against 3,825 of Motihari (*vide* " *Sarkar Saran* ", p. 72*). According to the census of 1951 Bettiah has a population of 35,634 as against 30,309 in 1941, 27,941 in 1931, 24,291 in 1921 and 24,693 in 1901. It shows a steady growth in population and the net variation from 1901 figure to 1951 figure comes to 10,938. Only in the census of 1921 there is a fall in the population to the tune of 1,502 which may be ignored. The 1951 population of 35,634 is composed of 18,428 males, i.e., 2,393 more than the 1901 figure and 17,206 females showing an overall increase of 2,932 than 1901 figure. Out of 35,634 persons 4,798 persons are engaged in production other than cultivation, 9,511 in commerce, 868 in transport, 11,310 in other services and miscellaneous sources, 1,420 are non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants and 7,727 are cultivators, cultivating labourers and their dependants.

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* **This book is published by the Gazetteers' Revision Section, Bihar.**

Bettiah has a municipality established in 1869. The limits of the municipality extend over an area of 8½ square miles. The municipality has a road mileage of 44½ miles including 36½ miles *pucca* roads and the rest are *katcha*. A detailed description of the municipality will be found in the chapter on Local Self-Government.

The town is important from the administration point of view. Besides being the headquarters of the subdivision it has a large number of offices of both Central and State Governments. Some of those Central Government departments are Post and Telegraph office, the Railway, Central Excise, the branch offices of the State Bank of India and the Life Insurance Corporation of India. Some of the State offices are those of Subdivisional Officer, Civil Court (Munsif), Sub-jail, Deputy Superintendent of Police's office, Subdivisional Officer, Education, Subdivisional Officer, Tube-well, Executive Engineer (Roads and Buildings), offices of the Bettiah Forest Division, Gandak Project, Anchal Office, Camp Commandant (Refugees), Special Land Acquisition Office (Refugees), Executive Engineer, Electricity, Excise Inspector, Land Reforms Deputy Collector, Sub-Registration Office, Subdivisional Officer, Labour, Subdivisional Officer, Agriculture, Inspector of Industries, Welfare Inspector, Assistant Health Officer, Anti-Malaria Officer, Public Health Engineering Department, Sales Tax—Commercial Taxes, Assistant Registrar, Co-operative (Cane Inspector), and branch offices of the National Central Co-operative Bank and the Central Bank of India, etc.

Bettiah is the largest trade centre of Champaran district. Minabazar, an organised trading spot, established by the Bettiah Raj in 1914, housed in a massive masonry built rectangular structure is perhaps the only one of its kind in the whole of North Bihar. It now houses nearly a thousand shops. The market dealing with the bulk export and import which is quite considerable in Bettiah is located in and round Lallbazar. Apart from grains which are brought in from neighbouring thanas and parts of Nepal and distributed to destinations far and near, turmeric is one of the major exports of Bettiah. More than 90,000 maunds of turmeric are sent to places in North and East India through rail from Bettiah. It is also a big consuming centre of kerosene oil and petrol. It is also the contact point for trade and commerce to and from Nepal.

There is a big turnover of hide, cigarettes, grains and consumer goods in the town of Bettiah.

The monthly average of inward and outward traffic of goods are 88,405 maunds and 30,960 maunds, respectively. The monthly average income therefrom comes to Rs. 77,974 and Rs. 25,210, respectively. The monthly average of inward and outward passenger traffic is 45,755 and 48,587 respectively. The earning therefrom comes to Rs. 39,108 and Rs. 23,414 respectively. The main items of export from this station are timber (mainly sent to Calcutta area), molasses (to Assam), sugar and hide (to various destinations).

A large number of road connections shoot out from Bettiah. Transport of goods by road is enormously increasing. From Bettiah there are passenger bus services to Bagaha, Ramnagar, Lauriya, Jogapatti, Areraj, Palhezaghat, Motihari and Muzaffarpur, Raxaul and other places. But some of the roads are not in a good condition. Even within the town limits some of the roads are in a very bad state.

There are one middle school, nine upper primary schools and 17 lower primary schools run by the municipality. Besides there are Christ Raja Boys' High School, St. Theresa Girls' High School, Bepin High School, Bettiah Raj High School and Girls' High School in Bettiah for secondary education of boys and girls. There is a degree college (Maharani Janki Kuar College) opened in 1955.

The town has more of old style *kutcha* buildings and most of the *muhallahs* are very congested. Sanitation and conservancy incidence are at a low level. After the Earthquake a number of cement and mortar buildings of new style have been built. *Pucca* two storied R. C. and R. B. buildings are becoming common. Slums are not separated.

The Raj-palace and the Guest House which are fine buildings have now a deserted appearance. The Bettiah Raj Cutcherry, the Marwari *Dharamshala* where Mahatma Gandhi stayed, the Hospitals, the Mission Houses, the Christ Raja High School, the Roman Catholic Church, the old mosque and some of the temples are well worth a visit.

The famous Durga temple in front of the Guest House was damaged in the Bihar Earthquake of 1934. It is said that the idol at the *Bhawani Mandap* was fixed on human skulls. The worship of Kali was at its height at Bettiah at one time. Bettiah was the centre of Tantricism at one time. The *Kalibari,* temple of the goddess Kali built about 250 years ago by the Bettiah Raj brings back stories of devotion of the Rajas and Ranis for the Goddess. Formerly there used to be one goat sacrifice daily and one buffalo sacrifice weekly at the altar of the Goddess but now only one goat a week is sacrificed. This temple is situated over a large area and has at least one hundred rooms filled with images of hundreds of deities—a varied and rich collection of all the *rashis, nakshatras, avtars, lingams* and the like. This is a rare collection of idols. There is another temple with good architectural designs within two furlongs from Bettiah station which shelters the image of Shankara. There is one Jungi Masjid, a small mosque with an interesting background. It is said that there was a fight between the Bettiah Raj and the Muslim community, the latter being the victor took over the possession of the mosque. From this incident the mosque had its name. The Bettiah Raj, instead of becoming vindictive, appreciated the valour of the Muslims and expressed the desire to pay the entire expenditure for the construction of a big, new mosque at the same place. The Muslims refused the offer and the Bettiah Raj bore the expenditure of the preparation of a grand *Tajia* at the time of Muharram.

The Roman Catholic Christians have got one beautiful magnificent Church. The Mission was established in December, 1745. This structure has a blend of the main features of Roman architecture and those of the Jaipur School of Indian architecture. It has an orphanage and a hostel for the Clergy. By the side of the church there is a big knitting school, managed by the Mission. The Christian population is concentrated in the locality where the Mission houses are constructed. This area is known as *Krischentoli.*

The other main localities of the town are Lallbazar, the main trade centre and inhabited mostly by trading communities like Marwaris and Sindhis, Quillabazar, another trading area, Puranigudri, an old area of the town, Kalighat where the Kalibari is situated. Chaumi, Ramnagri and Kumarbagh, a few miles away from the railway station are now mainly occupied by the displaced persons. Mazaritola, Jamdartola and Toritola are the slum areas. Portions of Ganj I and Ganj II are red light area. Banauria, Vasanttola and Pujantola are inhabited by people coming from all walks of life.

Besides a number of hotels of poor standard there are one Inspection Bungalow of the Public Works Department, one Dak Bungalow of the District Board and the Raj Guest House where both officials and non-officials may halt during their stay at Bettiah. There are two cinema houses. There is a football ground. There is one Hindu *Anathalaya* and also one Muslim *Yatimkhana* for the orphans. The Bettiah Raj Library is a big library and quite popular. The library has a children's park attached.

Nearabout the town there is the Sareyaman or Udaipur lake only a few miles away which is a beauty spot. The Udaipur Game Sanctuary also lies nearby. These are places of tourist's interests.

BHITHARWA.—It is a village in the Bettiah subdivision. This was one of the centres for social work selected by Gandhiji when he was in Champaran in 1917. Amolwa concern under the management of Mr. Ammon was located here. He was considered to be a terror to the locality. Gandhiji put this centre under the charge of some of his co-workers from outside Bihar such as Srimati Awantika Bai Gokhale, Somanji, Mahadeo Desai and others. Besides teaching alphabets, etc., the teachers did a lot of social work and did their own scavenging. They took upon themselves the problem of illiteracy. At present there is a Khadi centre working under direct control of the Bihar Khadi Samiti.

BHIKNATHORI.—A beauty spot. It is the last railway station on Narkatiaganj-Bhiknathori section. Located in the midst of beautiful scenery it was the traditional place of most for big game shooting. King George V had visited the area for *shikar*. It has an attractive bungalow.

Kankar (lime-stone) is obtained from the hill-sides and exported.

BRINDABAN.—The village is situated within police-station Bettiah in the Bettiah subdivision. It has the *Gram Seva Kendra* which had been planned to work out the ideals of the *Gandhi Seva Sangh*. About 100 bighas of land in one plot was procured and placed under the charge of a trust for this purpose. The *All-India Gandhi Seva Sangh* held their annual conference at this village in 1937. It was attended by Mahatma Gandhi, Dr. Rajendra Prasad and Sri J. B. Kripalani. From that time onwards a school and a small dispensary have been functioning there. Also village industries like weaving and spinning, *ghani* oil pressing, etc., are carried on there. It has a post office.

CHAINPATIA.—A growing township 10 miles north of Bettiah connected by a railway station of the same name between Bettiah and Narkatiaganj. It has a population of 5,100 according to the 1951 census. There is a District Board Dispensary and a Union Board Office besides a police-station and a combined Post and Telegraph office.

A large sugar mill, viz., Champaran Sugar Company, Limited, is located at this place. The *bazar* has a fairly large turnover in grains, particularly, rice, and *chura* (flattened rice). There is an Anchal office at Chainpatia.

CHANKIGARH.—The name of a remarkable mound in the It has an out-station of the Jesuit Mission of Bettiah. The Church at Chakni was designed and built by the priests themselves. The village has a population of 813, an area of 229 acres and 146 occupied houses according to the census of 1951.

CHANKIGARH.—The name of a remarkable mound in the Bettiah subdivision, situated 6 miles east of Ramnagar, a short distance north of the road from Shikarpur to Ramnagar. The mound, which stands about a quarter of a mile east of the village Chanki, is a mass of solid brick-work about 90 feet high and is composed for the most part of large bricks, 14 inches square by 2½ inches thick. The whole mound from east to west is about 250 feet long, but of such a straggling shape that it is not easy to define its exact limits; its shape may, however, be roughly defined as resembling the letter L. The sides are perpendicular above a certain height, where they rise out of the debris which has accumulated from bricks, etc., constantly falling down. It was probably originally a fort, and the remains of some fortifications can still be seen, besides some insignificant shrines. Some sheets of water surround the mound, and to the south a broad winding path leads up to the summit. The mound is known locally as Jankigarh or Jankikot, and local tradition asserts that it was a fort of king Janaka. Another tradition is that a Buddhist Raja, whose palace was at Lauriya Nandangarh, 11 miles to the south had a favourite priest, named Tantrik, for whom he built this fort; and while he kept a light always burning at Lauriya, the priest kept a light on Chankigarh, in order that they might know that all was well with each other."* Another source mentions that some two miles north-west of Narkatiaganj Railway Station, close to the village of Chandi, is a very ancient mound called Chankigarh or Jankigarh. Janki Kot is situated on elevated ground about 90 feet above the surrounding plain. It is a mass of solid brick-work. On the top are the remains of some ancient buildings and on the east side are traces of steps leading up to the top. The fort is attributed to the Bulayas, one of the tribes of the Vrijis, the ancient inhabitants of the country (*see* under Bettiah). Some seek to associate the place with great Chanakya. Some excavations were made more than 65 years ago by a Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah which resulted in the finding of a cannon ball, an iron spike and some copper coins.

CHUHARI.—The last *District Gazetteer, Champaran,* published in 1938 mentions : "A village about six miles north of Bettiah on the Parsa-Loheria road, is also a station of the Jesuit Mission at Bettiah. In 1785 Father Horace of Penna left Lhasa in despair at the order of the Tibetan authorities that he and his two companions might only preach on condition that they declared the Tibetan religion to be good and perfect. He returned to the Mission hospice in Patan (Nepal) and died there some six weeks later. The Mission continued there for 24 years longer until the Gurkhas swept away the Newar dynasty and expelled the Capuchin Fathers. They retired to Chuhari where in 1769 the Raja of Bettiah gave them and their Newar converts an asylum. There the Mission has remained ever since and now maintains an orphanage and a middle English school for boys, a church and a presbytery for two Fathers and two brothers. A substantial building has recently been erected to house the orphans and other boarders. There are also an orphanage and a middle English school for girls, a home for widows, a free dispensary and a training school for girls who wish to qualify for teachers' certificate–all managed by the Sisters of the Holy Cross." According to 1951 census this village has a population of 2,149 persons and occupies an area of 698 acres. There are a Middle School, a Lower Primary School and a Library. It has a post office also.

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* *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938).

DEWAR.–" A village in tappa Ramgir in the extreme north-east of the Bettiah subdivision. The village contains a shrine at which two fairs are held yearly, one on the full moon of the month of Kartik and the other on the Ramnawami in Chait. Local legend says that the place originally contained the fort of Arjuna Maharaja, and that it was attacked by a predatory tribe. An Ahirin, the sister of Krishna, was caught by them while hiding her husband, and had her nose and ears cut off. She was then turned into stone. The idol now in existence has a broken nose and this peculiarity has no doubt given rise to the legend. The offerings made at the shrine are the perquisites of a family of Tharu Gurus.*

DHAKA.–A village in Sadar subdivision with a population of 5,077 persons according to 1951 census. It has a police-station and an Anchal Office. It has also one combined post and telegraph office, one Lower Primary School, one Urdu Lower Primary School, one High School, one Library and a Basic School.

DHANAHA.–A village in Bettiah subdivision with a population of 5,919 persons according to 1951 census. It has a police-station and a Post Office. The office of the Dhanaha I Anchal-*cum*-Development Block is at Madhuban and of the Dhanaha II at Thakraha.

DHAPAHAR.–A village in the Adapur police-station. It was once known as Bhisagarh but now as Bhisa Math. It was formerly full of jungles. Some 150 years back, it is said, that one Shri Hardeobaba came and began to live there. His disciple after the death of Hardeobaba got a temple constructed and since then the temple and *Math* came into existence. The villagers say that it was formerly a place of the legendary Raja Dhruba and afterwards it was the capital town of Raja Nonachar. It is understood that some thirty years back some gold ornaments were found under the earth. There is a general belief that there is some hidden treasure in the village. It has a population of 851 according to the census of 1951.

GAUNAHA.–A village in Bettiah subdivision with a population of 191 persons according to 1951 census. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Project. Gaunaha is in Tharuhat, the area where the Tharus live.* There is a Rest Bungalow at Gaunaha. It has a railway station and a combined Post and Telegraph Office.

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* *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938).

GHORASAHAN.—A village in Sadar subdivision where there is a police thana. According to 1951 census it has a population of 4,205 persons. The village has a combined Post and Telegraph Office. Ghorasahan is the headquarters of a Community Development Block. It has a Lower Primary, Upper Primary, Middle and a High School.

GOABARI.—A village in Dhaka thana with an Inspection Bungalow overlooking the river and a canal embankment. The place is accessible from Dhaka by canal embankment road. The road from Motihari to Dhaka is motorable in the dry season. The railway station of Bairagnia is one mile from the Inspection Bungalow. The population according to 1951 census is 1,840.

GOBINDGANJ.—A village which has a population of 3,879 souls according to 1951 census is in Sadar subdivision. It has a police-station and a combined Post and Telegraph Office.

HARINAGAR.—It is a railway station on the Narkatiaganj-Bagaha branch. A road, motorable during the dry weather, runs northwards to the summit of the Sumeswar hill at a height of 2,884 feet above the sea level. The ascent to the summit lies along the Sumeswar pass up the bed of the Juri Pani stream amid romantic scenery. The summit overlooks the Mauri valley in Nepal and commands unequalled view of Mount Everest and of the great snow peaks of Dhaulagiri, Gosainthan and Annapurna. The view of the snows and of the intervening valleys in extent is said to be one of the finest obtainable from any place on the frontier line in India.

A fort, now in ruins, is situated on the edge of a sharp precipice on the summit of the hill. A temple bell of remarkably sweet tone, which is an object of considerable veneration, hangs in the ruins on the east of the fort.

HARSIDIH.—A village in Sadar subdivision with a population of 3,451 souls according to 1951 census. It has a police-station and a post office.

HUSSENI.—It is a rather neglected beauty spot in Kessariya thana. The *Jhil* at Husseni was once a famous sanctuary of birds. The place is accessible from Motihari by road and is situated five miles from Kessariya and 33 miles from Motihari. It has a population of 6,664 souls according to the census of 1951. It has a lower, an upper primary school and a post office.

JOGAPATTI.—A village in Bettiah subdivision. There was a large indigo concern at this village. The village has a police thana.

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* The Tharus have been described in 'People' Chapter.

JUAFAR.—It is a village under police-station Adapur and is situated within a mile from the adjoining village of Dhapahar. Many wells with bricks of old type have been discovered in agricultural plots and still many are being found out. Apparently this is an ancient site. It has a population of 1,144 souls.

KALYANPUR.—A village in Sadar subdivision with a population of 2,951 souls according to 1951 census. It has an Anchal Office. It has one upper primary school and a lower primary school. It has a post office also.

KASTURIA.—" A name given to a large mound of brick ruins on the west side of Saraiya in the south-east of the headquarters subdivision situated 16 miles east of Motihari. The mound, which is 160 feet long by 100 feet broad, is said to be the remains of a Chero Raja's palace. It has been dug up in all directions for the large bricks of which it is composed, and the fields for half a mile round are also strewn with their fragments. To the west of the mound there is a large *pakar* tree (*Fiscus glomerata*) about 15 feet in diameter, under which is a seated female figure, which the people call Durgavati Rani, but which appears to be the goddess Durga, as she holds the usual bow and arrow. The stone is much injured below, but the broken figure of a lion on which the goddess is seated, is faintly traceable. She has eight arms, and the figure is clearly a representation of Durga as Ashtabhuja Devi, or the ' eight-armed goddess '. The stone is partly enclosed by the tree, and is 3 feet 5 inches high and 2 feet 3 inches broad. The local legend is that Durgavati Rani was the wife of one of the Chero Rajas. One day when she was seated under the *pakar* tree, a Banjara came up to her, and tried to take off her bracelets, and other ornaments. She prayed for assistance and was at once turned into stone, with all her ornaments. (Reports, Archæological Survey, India, Vol. XVI.) "* The village Saraiya occupies an area of 340 acres and has a population of 392 persons. There is a lower primary school.

KESSARIYA.—Once a village, now a growing urban tract, recognised in 1951 census as a town with a population of 4,307 is in the headquarters subdivision in the extreme south of the district. It has got one Upper Primary School, one Lower Primary School, one Urdu Lower Primary School and a Library. It has a police-station, a district board dispensary and a sub-registration office. A combined Post and Telegraph Office is also there. It is also the headquarters of the Anchal-*cum*-Development Block, Kessariya.

The last *District Gazetteer of Champaran* mentions " Two miles to the south stands a lofty brick mound capped by a solid brick tower of considerable size, which clearly marks the remains of a Buddhist stupa. The mound itself, which is now overgrown with Jungles, is a ruined mass of solid brick-work, 62 feet in height, and 1,400 feet in circumference at its base; while the stupa, which is in ruins, has a diameter of 68 feet at its base and a total height of 5½ feet; originally it was crowned by a pinnacle which must have stood 80 or 90 feet high, or including the ruined basement not less than 150 feet above the ground. General Cunningham was of opinion that it dates back to A. D. 200 to 700, and that it was built upon the ruins of a much older and larger stupa. This ancient monument is known to the people as the deora of Raja Ben, who is said to have been one of the five supreme Emperors of India and is therefore called Raja Ben Chakravarti. It can hardly be doubted that the tradition of Raja Ben preserves the story recorded by Hiuen Tsiang, according to whose account this stupa was referred to a Chakravarti Raja by the Buddhists of the seventh century. He states that somewhat less than 200 li (i.e., about 30 miles) to the north-west of Vaisali, which is the exact position of the Kessariya stupa, there was an ancient town which had been deserted for many ages. It possessed a stupa built over the spot where Buddha had announced that in one of his former existences he had been a Bodhisatva and had reigned over that town as a Chakravarti Raja. This stupa is, in fact, one of the many memorial stupas built by the Buddhists at places connected with some remarkable event in the life of Buddha.

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* *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938).

"Local tradition asserts that Raja Ben had, by his austerities, become a Chakravarti or supreme ruler with superhuman powers, while his queen Kamalavati was able to stand on a lotus leaf when she bathed. The Raja, it is said, was an ideal landlord for he either took no rent for his lands, or only a *sup,* i.e., a winnowing basket of corn, from each cultivator. Unfortunately, one day he broke this excellent rule by ordering that everyone should give him a piece of gold the size of a grain of barley; he immediately lost his supernatural powers, and the lotus leaf gave way under his queen as she was bathing, and she was drowned. The Raja consulted his Pandits, who told him that she had been drowned because he had raised the old land rent; and he built the deora or stupa, and going inside with all his family closed the entrance by his magical powers and was seen no more. The site of the queen's palace is still pointed out in the shape of a mound called Raniwas, about half a mile to the north-east of the stupa; the tank in which she bathed is called the Gangeya Tal three quarters of a mile to the east of the stupa; and a large sheet of water, 3,000 feet in length, immediately to the south of the stupa is called Raja Ben's tank. The mound called Raniwas or the Rani's palace, is however, really the site of an old Buddhist monastery. Excavations made there in 1862 disclosed the remains of small cells and of a shrine containing a colossal figure of Buddha; this statue was removed in 1878 by a Bengali employee of the Ramgarh Indigo Concern. (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India*, Vols. I and XVI; *Report, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle*, 1901-2)". The ruins have been taken over by the Archæological Department.

KODARKAT.—It is a village within police-station Adapur. One temple was discovered about 60 years back. It is said that once a few boys while on their play chased a bird which entered in a bush. During their efforts to drive out the bird some metallic sounds were heard against their digging instruments. The then proprietor of Madhuban estate got the place excavated and as a result the stone-built temple was unearthed. Two stones with inscriptions on were reported to have been found of which one is said to be in the temple even now and the other is said to have been carried away by the proprietor of Madhuban estate. Two skeletons were also said to have been found inside the temple. This village is about two-thirds of a mile from village Dhapahar Bhisha Math. The villages Juafar and Dhapahar might have been the site of some chief in the past. It has a population of 2,351 souls according to the census of 1951. It has a post office.

LAKHAURA DHRUB-GARH.—This village in police-station Motihari is believed to be the birth place of the legendary Dhruba who is said to have been personally blessed by God because of his holy devotion. There is a temple in wretched condition having points on wall along with a statue of Lord Shiva and Parvati. There are about several tanks around the *garh*. It is reported that in the past while digging the earth jewels, metal and old utensils and coins have been found. The site is, undoubtedly, an ancient one and proper excavation may lead to find of relics.

LALSARAIYA.—The *District Gazetteer of Champaran*, published in 1938 has the following description :—

"An indigo factory in the Bettiah subdivision about five miles from Segauli station. It was built as an outwork of Turcawlia about 1822. In 1846, according to local report, the place was sold to G. Ralkner for a thousand maunds of oats. Later on it was bought by Mr. James Macleod, well known for his hospitality and his hard riding. He kept racing stables and his colours at one time were quite well known on the Turf in India. He built the outwards Raighat, Furrwah and Madhupur. The two latter are now uninhabited. Lalsaraiya has now ceased to grow indigo." According to 1951 census the population of the village is 2,545. A colony of displaced persons from East Pakistan has now been set up at Lalsaraiya. This has added to the population of the village. It has a post office.

LAURIYA ARERAJ.—The revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran* (1938) has the following description :—

"A village in the west of the headquarters subdivision, situated four miles north of Gobindgunj thana on the road from that place to Motihari. It contains one of the lofty stone columns erected by Asoka in 249 B. C. The pillar, which bears in well-preserved and well-cut letters six of his edicts, is a single block of polished sandstone, 36½ feet in height above the ground, with a base diameter of 41.8 inches and a diameter at the top of 37.6 inches. The weight of this portion only is very nearly 34 tons, but as there must be several feet of the shaft sunk in the earth, the actual weight of the whole block must be about 40 tons. This pillar has no capital, although there can be little, if any, doubt that it must once have been crowned with a statue of some animal. The edicts of Asoka are most clearly and neatly engraved, and are divided into two distinct portions, that to the north containing 18 lines, and that to the south 23 lines. They are in a good state of preservation, but the northern face of the pillar has suffered from the effects of the weather, and looks quite black, while the polish which is beautifully preserved elsewhere, has disappeared. This ancient pillar has not escaped the vandals, one of the first of whom was Reuben Burrow, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, and one of the earliest members of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, who had his name inscribed on it. This appears to be a favourite amusement of the scientist, for we also find his name chiselled on the Asoka pillars at Basarh and Lauriya Nandangarh. In each case the date is the same 1792, the year of his death. The villagers call the pillar laur, i.e., the phallus, and the adjoining village is named after it Lauriya; here there is a temple of Mahadeo, one mile south-west of the pillar, which is the site of a large annual fair. (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Vol. I.)."

The village has got a population of 1,990 persons according to 1951 census. It has one High School, one Middle School, one Upper Primary School and one Lower Primary School. There is an Anchal Office. It has also a police-station. There is also a combined post and telegraph office.

There is a temple known as that of Bahera Baba which attracts pilgrims from other districts as well. The village is likely to develop into a township within a short time.

Another source says that the village Areraj or Lauriya Areraj, eighteen miles south-west of Motihari, may be reached by a partly metalled and partly unmetalled road *via* Tarkulia and Matearia. About a mile south-west of the village stands a lofty stone pillar on which there are inscribed in well-preserved letters six of the edicts of Emperor Asoka. The pillar is a single block of polished sandstone—thirty-seven feet in height above the ground. It has no capital now but there can be no doubt that originally it was surmounted by the statue of an animal. These edicts, which date from 242 B. C. are very clearly and neatly engraved and are divided into two parts, one to the north containing 18 lines, the other to the south containing 23 lines. The edicts deal with different subjects as under :—

> Edict I—The principle of Government. Edict II—The Royal examples. Edict III—Self-examination. Edict IV—The powers and duties of the Commissioners. Edict V—Regulations restricting slaughter and mutilation of animals. Edict VI—The necessity for a definite creed.

Lauriya Areraj may also be reached by road from Sugauli, fifteen miles away. Motor lorry service is available.

LAURIYA NANDANGARH.—The last revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran* has the following description :—

" A village in the Bettiah subdivision about 16 miles north-west of Bettiah, which contains some of the most interesting remains in the district, viz., the Lion Pillar of Asoka, and some ancient sepulchural mounds. The following account of the pillar, which General Cunningham :—" Its shaft is formed of a single block of stands less than half a mile to the east of the village, is given by polished sandstone, 32 feet and 9½ inches in height, with a diameter at base of 35.5 inches and of 26.2 inches at top. The capital which is 6 feet 10 inches in height, is bell-shaped, with a circular abacus supportng the statue of a lion. The abacus is ornamented with a row of Brahmani geese pecking their food. The column has a light and elegant appearance, and is altogether a much more pleasing monument than the shorter and stouter pillar of Bakhra. The lion has been injured in the mouth, and the column itself bears the round mark of a cannon shot just below the capital, which has itself been slightly dislodged by the shock. One has not far to seek for the name of the probable author of this mischief. By the people, the outrage is ascribed to the Musalmans, and on the pillar itself in beautifully-cut Persian characters, is inscribed the name of Mahiuddin Muhammad Aurangzeb Padshah Alamgir Ghazi, *San* 1071. This date corresponds with A. D. 1660-61 which was the fourth year of the reign of the bigoted Aurangzeb, and the record may probably have been inscribed by the some zealous follower in Mir Jumla's army, which was then on its return from Bengal, after the death of the Emperor's brother Shuja.

" The pillar is much thinner and much lighter than those of Bakhra and Areraj. The weight of the polished portion of its shaft is only 18 tons, or rather less than half that of the Bakhra pillar, and somewhat more than half that of the Areraj pillar. The pillar is inscribed with the edicts of Asoka in the same clear and beautifully-cut characters as those of the Areraj pillar. The two inscriptions, with only a few trifling variations, correspond letter for letter. The Nandangarh pillar has been visited by the numerous travellers, as it stands on the direct route from Bettiah to Nepal. There are few unimportant inscriptions in modern Nagari, the oldest being dated in Sambat 1566 Chait Badi 10 equivalent to A. D. 1509. One of them, without date, refers to some petty royal family, Nripa Narayan Suta Nripa Amara Singh, i.e., king Amar Singh, the son of king Narayana. The only English inscription is the name of Rn. Burrow 1792.

"The pillar itself has now become an object of worship as a phallus or lingam, and the offerings of sweetmeats and fruits are made before it by the villagers, who call it Bhim Singh's staff (*lathi*). There are no traces of any buildings near it, but, there are two fine banyan trees close by, one to the north and the other to the south. The pillar, now over 2,000 years old, is in excellent preservation and its massiveness and exquisite finish furnish striking proof of the skill and resource of the masons of the Asoka's age.

"About three-quarters of a mile west of the pillar and half a mile south-west of the village of Lauriya is a huge detached mound, called Nandangarh, which commands an extensive view over the well-wooded country on every side. This mound which stands about 80 feet high is composed of bricks, some of which measure about 24 inches in length by 12 inches in breadth and 5½ inches thick. The space to the south was enclosed by a massive wall described as being 10 feet thick, and there are traces of the foundations of at least one small building on the top of the mound, which is about 250 to 300 feet square. It has been conjectured by Mr. V. A. Smith that this mound is the 'Ashes stupa' in which the ashes of Buddha's funeral pyre were enshrined. According to Buddhist tradition, after the cremation of Buddha's body at Kusinara, the fragments that remained were divided into eight portions. The Mauryas of Piplivanna sent an embassy claiming a share of the relics, but the envoys only arrived after the division had been made and had to be content with the ashes of the funeral pyre. Over these they built a great stupa, which is described by Hiuen Tsiang among others. It is impossible, however, to affirm this identification positively, until an adequate survey of the entire group of ruins is made and systematic excavations are carried out. Dr. Bloch, on the other hand, is inclined to believe that this huge brick mound was some kind of fortification or perhaps the citadel of an ancient city, and points out that round it the traces of an old ditch are still visible, and that the small brick buildings, of which there are traces on the terrace at the top, were perhaps watchtowers.. It is open to question, however, whether the area on the top of the mound could accommodate a garrison or even a palace of any size. The mound is now thickly covered with jungles and trees, so that not even its shape can be made out; only a small path has been cut to the small plateau on the top. Local tradition says that Raja Janaka lived at Chankigarh (Jankigarh) 11 miles to the north while his sister was married in Lauriya, and that the site of her dwelling is called Nandangarh, because she was the *nanad* or husband's sister of the Raja's consort.

"Even more curious are the earthen mounds, north of the village, on the western side of the Turkaha stream. There are 15 mounds arranged in three rows, one running from east to west and the other two from north to south, parallel to each other, an arrangement which seems to show that they were erected according to some definite plan. They are known to be of great age, a small punch-marked silver coin having been found in one of them, which is anterior to the time of Alexander the Great and may be as old as 1000 B. C. General Cunningham was of opinion that they were the sepulchural mounds of the early kings of the country prior to the rise and spread of Buddhism and that their dates might be assumed as ranging from about 600 to 1000 B. C. They may, indeed, be the *chetiyani* or *chaityas* alluded to by Buddha in a question addressed to his disciple Ananda about the Vrijjians. 'Ananda' he said 'hast thou heard that the Vrijjians, whatever the number may be of the Vrijjian *chetyani* belonging to the Vrijjian (rulers) whether situated within or without (the city), they maintain respect, reverence and make offerings to them; and that they keep up without diminution the ancient offerings, the ancient observances, and the ancient sacrifices righteously made'. The belief that they are *tumuli* or sepulchural barrows appears to have been confirmed by the discovery, about 40 years ago, of a leaden or iron coffin containing a human skeleton; while the more recent excavations of Dr. Bloch have shown without doubt that this belief is correct. The following account of these excavations is taken with some abbreviations from the year 1904-05.

"The mounds are arranged in three rows of five each, varying in height from 50 to 20 feet. The first row runs from east to west: a little to the north between the first and second mounds in this row, stands the famous Asoka column with the lion capital. Then follow two parallel rows from north to south. The fourth mound from the north in the eastern one of these two rows is the place where the iron or leaden coffiin with a human skeleton was discovered. The place of the fourth mound in the western one of the north to south row is occupied by a cluster of five small mounds only a few feet in height and hardly distinguishable from the fields round them. Their shape is now more or less conical, but it is probable that originally they were hemispherical and that the action of the rain water has washed off a good deal of the earth from the top and thus changed their forms. There is generally round a base a large accumulation of yellow clay, the material used for building the mounds. This yellow clay, of which all the mounds have been made, is quite different from the white soil of the surrounding fields, and it is evident that it must have been imported from somewhere else. Time has made it almost as hard as stone, and to dig through the mounds is consequently slow work. There seems no doubt that the earth used in building the mounds has been taken from the bed of the Gandak, about 10 miles distant numerous pebbles found imbedded in the clay leaving no doubt as to its real origin. A further peculiarity is that in three of the mounds opened the clay had been put up in thin layers with straw and leaves laid between them. In digging through the mounds, the earth broke off in flat cakes of a few inches thickness, showing on both sides clear marks of straw having been put between the layers of clay. The layers evidently consisted of broad strata raised one upon the other through the entire width of the mound, and no signs were found of their having been made by unburnt bricks.

"Excavations were carried on by Dr. Bloch in four of the mounds. In the first mound opened a small deposit of human bones was found, mixed up with burnt wood, and a small gold leaf with a figure of a female stamped on it. This mound is the third from the north in the western line of the rows running from north to south. It is one of the highest of the mounds, its height exceeding 50 feet. In the centre was a hollow shaft, which had obviously been filled by a thick post of sal wood, of which the stump was left, the remainder having been eaten up by white ants. The second mound opened was the first from the north in the eastern line of the rows, which yielded very little interest. There was no deposit of bones, except animal bones turned up here and there, but in the centre were found a great number of pieces of corroded iron. It is possible that they formed parts of a pillar running through the centre of the mound, like the wooden post in the first mound above. In the third mound opened, viz., the second in the western line of the rows, a deposit of human bones was found and a gold leaf with a female figure stamped upon it exactly like that found in the first mound. Here too was discovered the opening of a hollow shaft. The last mound opened was the third from the north in the eastern line of mounds aligned north and south, but in this no remains were found.

"Dr. Bloch gives the following explanation of the use to which these mounds were put: The explanation of the facts revealed by my excavations will be found in the ancient Indian burial customs, described to us in the *Sutras* and *Prayogas* dealing with the ritual. Their rules have been collected together and explained in Dr. Caland's well-known work, Diealteridischen Todten and Bestattungsgebrauche (Verhandelingen der koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen to Amsterdam, 1896). According to this excellent publication, the disposal of the dead in ancient India was divided into four separate acts, viz., (1) cremation; (2) collecting the bones of the cremated person and depositing them in an urn (*asthi sanchayana*); (3) expiation (*santikarama*); and (4) erection of the funeral monument (*smasana-chit, lostachiti*). The fourth act is optional only, and is done some time after the bones have been deposited in the funeral urn and placed in the field under a tree. The urn is then taken out, and after the bones have been washed and several other ceremonies have been performed, they are placed upon the earth, the urn is broken and thrown away, and a funeral monument (*smasana*) is erected over the bones by piling up layers of bricks or clay. The height of such a grave generally does not appear to have exceeded that of a human body and its shape was some form of a quadrangle. However, both Apastamba and Hiranyakesin also mention round *smasana*, like the mounds at Lauriya. In building up the *smasana* we find a Vedic verse employed where a post (*sthana*) is mentioned. The meaning of this is not quite clear from the context or from the ritual, but I think the discovery of the two wooden posts, in two of the mounds above which the bones were deposited, shows that it refers to a similar custom, according to which a pillar was erected in the centre of the funeral monument and the bones placed above its top. The verse may be thus translated :—" I raise the earth round thee; that I lay down this lump of earth, should not do me any harm. May the manes hold this pillar for thee, and may Jama prepare a seat for thee in the other world ". Again in another verse recited at the same occasion it is said " The piled up earth may stand firmly, may it be supported by thousand pillars ".

" That there is a connection between the first and the third mounds at Lauriya and the *smasana* described to us in the Vedic ritual cannot, I think, be doubted. The only difference is the height of the Lauriya mounds. The straw placed between the layers of clay at Lauriya even reminds one of the bushels of grass that are put upon the *smasana*, and as regards the gold leaf we must remember that pieces of gold are placed upon the openings of the dead body before it is cremated. Whether the second and the last mounds have served the same purpose as the first and the third is not quite clear. It is possible that they were erected as monuments of persons whose funeral urns could not be found. This case is provided for in the ritual, and it is prescribed that some earth then should be taken out from the spot, where the urn was supposed to have been deposited and laid down instead of the bones. We may also think of the rules referring to persons who died on a journey and whose bodies could not be found. It is, however, likewise possible that the second and the third mounds merely served some purpose in connection with the cremation, which invariably was performed on the same place where the *smasana* was put up later.

" It is curious to find that Asoka erected one of his pillars close to a *smasana*, the haunt of ghosts and evil spirits in later times. The explanation of this is not difficult to find. Evidently these funeral monuments probably containing the remains of the royal persons, formed an object of worship, as we find adoration of the *chaityas* or funeral monuments of Chakravarties or kings mentioned in the ancient Buddhist literature. The worship of stupas by Buddhists and Jains is nothing but an adoption of this popular form of grave worship. As a place which annually attracted large gatherings from far away, Asoka could not have selected a more suitable spot for the promulgation of his moral precepts. We thus have in the Lauriya mounds an intermediate form between the *smasana* and the Buddhist stupa or *chaitya*. That their date is anterior to Asoka's pillar seems highly probable, but I cannot say for how many centuries. It is a great pity that they yielded so little in the way of antiquarian finds. Only broken fragments of pottery and stone vessels turned up. The gold leaves may be looked upon as specimens of the ancient *nishka* pieces of gold worn as ornaments and used as coins likewise. The ancient *smasana* was to the north of the town or village, and the mounds of Lauriya likewise lie north of the Nandangarh, which may have been the citadel of an ancient city that once existed at that place.

"At a distance of from 3½ to 6 miles to the west of Lauriya Nandangarh, and both along and between two old river channels, hundreds of small grass-covered mounds or *tumuli*, varying from 2½ feet to 8 feet in height, are scattered here and there over the undulating grassy plain. These barrows are mostly of a subconical shape but some few are shaped like a cup or a bowl turn upside down The majority are situated near or along the banks of an old river bed, which divides into two branches to the west of Lauriya, the eastern or larger branch being called the Harha, and the western branch the Mausohimakhand. It is noticeable also that the great barrows of Lauriya are situated near the northern bank of the Turkaha and only about two-thirds of a mile to the south of another larger river. There was probably a purpose in this, as water had to be near at hand for the ablutions connected with the cremation of corpses, the ashes being afterwards deposited in the mounds close by (*Reports, Archæological Survey of India,* Vols. I, XVI and XXII; *Reports, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle,* 1901-02 and 1904-05; V. A. Smith, *Kusinara and other Buddhist Holy places, Journal Royal Asiatic Society,* 1902.)."

According to the census of 1951 the village has a population of 3,577 persons, occupies an area of 862 acres and has one Middle, one Upper Primary and one Lower Primary School and a Sanskrit Pathshala. There is a Police Thana and a District Board Hospital. There is now a Sugar Factory at Lauriya village. There was previously an indigo concern which has been replaced by a Sugar Factory. There is a Post Office.

MADANPUR.—The revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran* in 1932 has the following description :—

"A place in the Bettiah subdivision situated on the bank of the Gandak, 10 miles north of Bagaha. Tradition says that Madanpur was formerly the palace of a king; it is now an almost impenetrable jungle, but there are many curious old brick remains similar to those found at Darwabari and in the north-west corner of the district. A small footpath leads to a shrine in the midst of the jungle, where lives an old *Sannyasi,* who never leaves his jungle retreat, but waits patiently for the villagers to bring him food. These jungles were the asylum of the Magahiya Doms before the present settlements were founded."

Probably excavation might have led to the discovery of important archæological finds in this area. The *Sannyasi* referred to in the previous description is no longer alive. The village has now a population of 235 persons and an area of 5,385 acres. Much of the area is covered by jungle.

MADHUBAN.—The following description occurs in the District Gazetteer revised and published in 1938 :—

"A village in the south-east corner of the headquarters subdivision, situated 20 miles south-east of Motihari, and 5 miles north-east of the Chakia railway station. The village contains a police-station, a district board dispensary and the residence of one of the most influential zamindar families of the district. The founder of the family was Abdhut Singh, the great-grandson of Raja Ugra Sen Singh, the founder of the Bettiah Raj, with whom tappa Duho-Suho and the villages of Madhuban and Shampur were settled as *nankar* in the time of Mir Kasim Ali Khan. At that time the family residence was in the village of Madhubani, eight miles east of Motihari, but his grandson, Har Prasad Singh, removed it to Madhuban, where his descendants have remained ever since. The estate is one of the largest in Champaran having an area of 50,000 acres and an annual income of Rs. 2 lakhs. A large fair is held annually in the village in the month of Asin and lasts for 25 days. Large numbers attend it, and a brisk trade is carried on in the sale and purchase of cattle, horses and miscellaneous goods.

The estate in recent years has run into debt, and as a result the major portion has been recently mortgaged to the Maharajadhiraja of Darbhanga to pay off debts."

Madhuban estate has now vested in the State after the abolition of zamindari. The fair held annually in the month of Asin and lasting for about 25 days continues to attract thousands of visitors. A very brisk trade is carried on during the *mela.* There is a large turnover of cattle trade.

The village, according to 1951 Census has a population of 4,385 persons and occupies an area of 984 acres. It has one Middle School, one Lower Primary School and a Library. The village has a police-station and a District Board Dispensary. It is a headquarters of the Community Development Block. It has also a combined posts and telegraphs office.

MADHUBANI.—A village in Sadar subdivision with a population of 3,648 persons according to 1951 census.

In 1934 a village uplift centre (*Gram Sevak Kendra*) was started at Madhubani, police-station Dhaka. When the great earthquake visited this district that centre did useful relief work. There was encouragement for weaving and spinning. This centre has a big establishment and is teaching crafts to the villages besides spreading education on hygiene and social welfare. Blankets, woollen *chaddars*, etc., are manufactured by hands. At present *khadi* and wool work is going on besides local small schemes for village uplift. This centre is known as *Kala Sala*. There is a post office also.

MAINATANR.—A village in Bettiah subdivision which has a police thana. The population of the village is 1,280 persons according to 1951 census. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block. It has a Lower Primary School.

MAJHAULIA.—A village in Bettiah subdivision. It has a police-station and a large sugar mill. The population of the village according to 1951 census is 867 persons; this population has been very much increased by the settlement of a colony of displaced persons. There is a dispensary, a Middle School, and a combined Posts and Telegraphs Office.

MEHSI.—The following is the description of this village in the old Gazetteer which has lost very much of its previous importance :—

" A village in the south of the headquarters subdivision situated 26 miles south-east of Motihari, near the main road from that place to Muzaffarpur and now the headquarters of a union board. The village is said to have been the Sadar or chief civil station in Champaran, when the East India Company first acquired possession of it, and a munsif's court was for a time located there : the remains of a court house and one of the European bungalows are still visible. The place is noted for a strong flavoured tobacco, the seed of which is said to have been imported by one of the European officers stationed there, and also for strong and durable carpets (*daris* and *satranjis*) woven by the local weavers. Under the Muhammadans the village was long the seat of a Muhammadan Kazi, and gave its name to the pargana of Mehsi, which was granted to one Mahrum Khan by the Emperor Akbar.

The name Mehsi is accounted for by a quaint legend. It is believed that there was a Hindu *sadhu*, by name Mahesh Koiri, whose distinguishing characteristic was that he lived solely on milk. One Halim Shah, a Muhammadan ruler, having turned *fakir*, came from the west to see the Hindu *sadhu*, and was astounded to see him extract milk from a heifer for his refreshment. Needless to say, the Muhammadan *fakir* was much impressed by Mahesh Koiri's accomplishment and caused the tract to be named after him. To this day the village contains a Hindu shrine and a Musalman *dargah*, which were built side by side under the express orders of Halim Shah, and all who would show honour to the one are asked to show equal honour to the other. Many miraculous feats are attributed to Halim Shah and his power to perform miracles is believed to have remained even after his death. It is said that when a Kalwar once attempted to tap a date-palm near the *dargah,* in order to obtain the juice for the manufacture of intoxicating drink, which is forbidden to Muhammadans, blood flowed from the tree. There is also a tradition that there was formerly an inscribed stone at the gate of the tomb, with the magic aid of which thieves could be unerringly detected and stolen property recovered. Jang Bahadur, says the legend, removed this stone to Nepal, and when the saint remonstrated, promised to erect a cenotaph in his memory. This original *dargah* is a great place of pilgrimage, and an annual fair is held there, at which some thousands attend. It is visited by persons for all sorts of purposes, but mainly by those who desire to be blessed with children or who are suffering from some lingering disease."

Another story is current regarding the miraculous feats of *Data* Halim Shah and his disciple Mahesh Rout which runs counter to the narration given in the last *District Gazetteer of Champaran.* It is said that about 300 years ago one *Data* Halim Shah, also known as Mirza Halim, came to Mehsi which was a district headquarters during the Moghal period. He was a *fakir* and was accompanied by his brother's wife and his sister. He came to this place and met one Mahesh Rout. He was very hungry and thirsty and asked for milk. Mahesh on the *fakir's* direction brought a she-calf and to his great amazement saw that the she-calf began to give milk as soon as the *fakir* touched the back of it. The *fakir* drank the milk and thus quenched his thirst. Mahesh became attracted and turned a disciple of the *fakir.*

The news that the *fakir* was blessed with godly gift spread in the neighbourhood. People began to flock in large numbers and approached him for their troubles and ailments, etc. He used to give them some sort of *rakh* (ashes) which brought relief in some cases. During his lifetime he was highly respected and was the religious head of the local Muslims. He was also respected by the non-Muslims. His name travelled far and wide and several *fakirs* from distant places came to him as disciples. These disciples settled down and some of villages where they settled down were named after them, e.g., (1) Alahlad Shah settled at village Zahladpur, (2) Ibrahim Shah at Ibrahimpur, (3) Khodabad Shah at Khodapur and (4) Shahbaz Khan at Mirzapur. *Data* Halim Shah, his brother, his brother's wife and his sister died at Mehsi.

Data Halim is said to be a descendant from the Tarbari family to which Taimoor belonged.

The population of Mehsi according to 1951 census was 2,398 and the area of the village 153 acres. There is a combined Posts and Telegraphs office, and one Hospital with 6 beds run by the District Board. Mehsi at one time was more important than Motihari. It is now the centre of a cottage industry, namely, Pearl Button Industry. This industry was started in 1905. It is the headquarters of a

Community Development Block. Mehsi is an important station of the Muzaffarpur-Narkatiaganj section of the North Eastern Railway.

MOTIHARI.—Motihari is the headquarters of the district of Champaran, situated in 26°-40′ N. and 84°-55′ E. It is picturesquely situated on the bank of a lake (*man*) with contact with Gandak which has got silted up. The river at this point has left two horseshoe bends, which originally formed the neck of a loop in its channel, and the town is situated on the north side of the western bend. These two lakes never entirely dry up, and the depth in the rainy season is over 20 feet in places; but in the hot weather there is not more than two to three fathoms of water at any point. The head of the loop towards the south has silted up and is now under cultivation. In the rainy season, water is let in from the Gandak river on the north by a canal constructed by the Motihari Factory and there is a small channel joining the two lakes, which keeps the water fresh. The western lake divides Motihari into two distinct portions. To the west formerly there were European residences now a congested town and to the east are the various public offices and the railway station, beyond which again are the old race course and the polo ground, no longer used as such. Adjoining the latter is the jail, erected about 50 years ago, on a standard plan, according to which the dormitories form the upper storey of the building, the basement of which contains labour wards. This has been housing the Munshi Singh College since 1945 and the jail is shifted to a newly constructed jail premise near the Police Lines. A *bund* or embankment was built some 55 years ago in order to connect the town with the court buildings, which are situated far from the station.

For a comparatively small population, Motihari is well-spread and distinctly divided into two portions, viz., New Motihari (Lauthaha Notified Area) containing most of the public offices, e.g., Court, Jail, Police Lines, Circuit House, Officers' bungalows, etc. In the older section of the town the markets are situated, one Meena Bazar built by Bettiah Raj on the pattern of the Meena Bazar at Bettiah, other shops and residential houses. There are only two well-defined slums in town, one by the side of the Johnpool and the other near the Gudri Bazar which is one of the oldest portion in the town. The slum at Johnpool habitates about 75 to 100 persons while the slum near Gudri Bazar consists between 300 and 500 persons. The persons are mostly menial staff of the Municipality and persons belonging to very low income group. They have thatched houses, some of them tend pigs and prepare baskets. The *mohalla* Chhota Bariyarpur comprising of mill area which has been added to the town is of recent origin and one of the busy centres of the town.

For a district headquarters Motihari has got a small population. Its population is less than that of Bettiah, the subdivisional headquarters of the same name, which is larger and more populous.

According to 1951 census the population of Motihari is 24,489 against 20,717 in 1941 thus gaining a net increase of 3,772. Out of the figure 24,489, 14,247 are males and 10,242 are females, both the sexes gaining an increase of 2,632 and 1,140 over 1941, respectively. The 1951 census shows that 4,492 persons are engaged in production other than cultivation, 5,550 in commerce, 706 in transport, 9,148 in other service and miscellaneous sources, 508 are non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent-receivers and their dependants and 4,085 are cultivators, cultivating labourers and their dependants.

Motihari has a municipality since 1869. There were 12 Commissioners, of whom two members were *ex-officio* and eight were nominated. Since 1923 there had been a change over when the board was constituted of 20 members, of whom 16 were elected, one was *ex-officio* and the balance were nominated. At present the Motihari municipality consists of 27 members of whom 22 are elected and five nominated including the *ex-officio* members. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the municipality are elected non-officials right from 1923.

The area of the municipality originally consisted of 6½ square miles but now the municipal limits extend over an area of 7¾ square miles. The total length of roads within the municipal limits are 20 miles and 3 furlongs, of which excluding 6 miles 4 furlongs, the entire road length is owned and maintained by the municipality. Of the total mileage of municipal roads 11 miles 3 furlongs are metalled and the rest *katcha*. In 1956-57 the municipality maintained 24 Primary and 2 Middle schools. The Primary education is free and compulsory within the municipal limits since 1939. The municipality maintained 12 miles and 700 yards of drainage of which 12 miles are *pucca* and the rest are *kutcha*.

The main thoroughfares of the town are electrified. A water-supply scheme through pipe was sanctioned in November, 1954, the estimated cost of which is Rs. 11,54,000. Two water towers have already been constructed and one more is to be constructed. Half the amount of water-supply scheme has been met by the Government and the half amount has been given to the municipality as loan. The town is expected to get piped water-supply soon. There are also several tube-wells sunk by the municipality to supply drinking water to the citizen.

The detailed functioning of the municipality has been covered elsewhere in Local Self-Government chapter.

With the inception of the Motihari Zila School in 1869, the spread of modern education in the district including the town of Motihari began in right earnest. At present Gopal Shah Vidyalaya, Mangal Seminary and Girls' High School in addition to the Zila School serve the purpose of secondary and higher secondary education of the town. There is only one college in Motihari, viz., Munshi Singh College which was started in 1945. It now provides education in Intermediate of Arts, Intermediate of Science, Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science and it has the benefit of co-education.

The earthquake of 1934 destroyed more than 60 per cent of the residential houses and made inhabitable at least another 20 per cent. So, almost the bulk of the structures of the town are built after 1934. Very few double-storeyed buildings are visible. Most houses are small, one storeyed and spacious. Big buildings are now being built after taking great care for the soil condition. The houses are brick-built, roofed and generally either white washed or yellow coloured. Persons belonging to higher income group have larger, better-built R. C. houses. Thatched houses are still in existence and are occupied by people belonging to low income group.

Motihari has not much of trade or banking. But most of the modern amenities, implements, utensils and vehicles for hire are available. Stationery shops are there. There are a few good book shops but they keep more of school and college books than books of general interest. There are a few restaurants and hotels of rather poor standard. The old town has some remarkably old giant trees.

For recreational purposes there are two cinema houses for public shows. Their location in the old town is more convenient for the cinema going people. There is a football ground and also a big open field, viz., Gandhi Maidan by the Police Lines at Lautaha area. A new Rowing Club has been opened in 1955. It has facilities for modern games. The Rowing Club was formally opened in the new building in 1958.

The climate of the town is normal. In the rainy season, however, it becomes damp and malarial. Summer is not so uncomfortable as in other towns of Patna or Bhagalpur Division excluding Santhal Parganas. Dust storms are rare in summer season. The cold season is very pleasant and a clear view of the snow-capped Himalayas is clearly seen from the town on sunny days.

The main vehicles for public conveyances are rickshaw and *tanga,* the first is drawn by man power and the other by horse power. Rickshaw has not only come to stay but tends to drive out *tanga* completely out of the market. There are 850 to 900 rickshaws in the town, whereas there are only 350 to 400 *tangas.* Buses go out in all the directions from Motihari town, e.g., to Muzaffarpur, Bettiah, Raxaul, Narkatiaganj, Bagaha, etc. The town is also served with a railway junction station on the North-Eastern Railways.

There is one Sadar Hospital on the road leading to the Civil Courts. It has got provisions for treating both indoor and outdoor patients.

Panch Mandir and Sahu Mandir are the oldest buildings of Motihari and both contain numerous idols of Hindu gods and goddesses. They attract a large number of devotees every day. They are managed partly by subscriptions and partly by the income of oblations.

MOTIHARI SUBDIVISION.—The Headquarters Subdivision situated between 26°-16′ and 27°-1′ N. and 85°-30′ and 85°-18′ E. with an area of 1,528 square miles according to the census of 1951. The subdivision consists of an alluvial tract, in which the land is level, fertile and highly cultivated. The river Sikrahna, known in its lower reaches as the Budhi Gandak, traverses this tract from north-west to south-east. The soil in the portion to the north of this river, comprising an area of approximately two-fifths of the subdivision, is a strong clay known locally as *bangar,* yielding very heavy rice crops in years of sufficient rainfall or in localities where irrigation can be carried on. South of the river the soil is mainly a light sandy loam not so suitable for rice, but yielding good crops of maize and various cold weather crops, such as wheat, barley, mustard, linseed, etc.

Its population was 10,40,599 in 1901 as compared with 10,99,600 in 1891. Its population was 14,43,961 in 1951 as against 13,88,783 and 12,38,789 in 1941 and 1931, respectively. The density of the subdivision in 1951 comes to 944 per square mile as against 536 per square mile of its sister subdivision Bettiah and 713 per square mile density of the whole district. The headquarters is at Motihari and there are 1,276 villages.

NARKATIAGANJ.—*See* Shikarpur.

NAUTAN.—A village in Bettiah subdivision with a population of 7,319 persons according to 1951 census. Nautan has a Police Thana. The area is rather notorious for an incidence of goitre. It has an Anchal Office. It has one upper primary school and a lower primary school. It has a post office also.

NONACHAR.—The last *District Gazetteer of Champaran,* 1938, mentions—

"An old fort in the headquarters subdivision, situated on the north bank of the Sikarahna, five miles north-east of Motihari. The remains consist of an oblong mound, divided into four smaller sections by two roads running through it, one in each direction. At places where they meet, an ancient tank exists, which is now silting up. All the four sides of each of the four smaller sections seem to have been protected by walls which are covered with thick jungle. Local legend says that the fort is named after its former ruler, one Nonachar Dusadh, who is the hero of a quaint legend regarding the Subhegarh fort in the Muzaffarpur district. Subhegarh, it is said, was the palace of Raja Suhel De, who was the last of his race, having only one child, a beautiful daughter, named Subahi Devi. After her father's death, she was sought in marriage by many princes, but she refused to marry any one, and at last only consented to marry a man who should be able to count all the palm trees in the fort. At that time the whole place was covered with palm trees, and the task of counting them seemed impossible. Many princes tried and failed, but Nonachar succeeded by first tying a piece of string round every palm tree, which is said to have occupied him some months; and when no tree could be found without a string, he took off all the strings and counted them. He then claimed the hand of the princess, but she was so overcome with shame at the thought of being married to a man of such a low caste that she prayed that the earth should open and swallow her up. Her prayer was heard, and the earth at once opened under her.

There has been no change in the site since the above description was published.

PADUMKAIR.—It is a village in the National Extension Block, Patahi I in the Sadar subdivision. This village appears to be of historical interest. Recently one old well has been dug out which has very old bricks.

Another tank with an area of 52 bighas is also supposed to be very old and was dug by one Shivi Raja who is supposed to belong to mediaeval age. There is also a report of a piece of land in this village in which a special variety of paddy is grown which gives taste of *ghee*. According to 1951 census it has a population of 2,875 souls.

PAKRIDAYAL.—A village in Sadar subdivision which is the headquarters of a Community Development Block (Patahi II). According to 1951 census this village has a population of 3,576 souls. It has one Senior Basic School, one Lower Primary School and a Library.

PARSA.—The last *District Gazetteer of Champaran* revised in 1932 has the following description :—

" A village in Bettiah subdivision contains an old indigo factory built sometime in the sixties; though indigo is no longer grown or manufactured, the concern owns the Pakri Sugar Mill, grows a considerable amount of cane and is a large *thikadar* under the Bettiah Estate."

The present village has changed immensely. Pakri Sugar Mill has now changed hands and is known as Lauriya Sugar Factory. The present population of Parsa according to 1951 census is 312. There is a post office at the village.

PATAHI.—A village in Sadar subdivision. There is a police thana. According to 1951 census the population of the village is 3,913 souls. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block. It has a High School, one Middle School and a Library. It has also a combined Posts and Telegraphs Office.

PATJIRWA.—A village in the Bettiah subdivision, situated 8 miles west of Bettiah. In the last *District Gazetteer of Champaran* published in 1938 it was mentioned :—

> "The village contains a shrine of extreme sanctity, which is said to have been erected by a chief called Durbijja Singh, whose wife and children committed *sati* after he and his sons had been killed in a fight. From that time onwards, in order to honour his memory, it has been laid down that within the tappa of Patjirwa none should sleep on a *charpai* or build a house of masonry. With such awe do the natives regard this shrine that it is said that they will not, within the whole of that tappa, build any house of masonry; and the death of a former Subdivisional Officer of Bettiah, who committed suicide, is attributed to the fact that he had his tent pitched on the site of the shrine."

This description, however, does not fit in now. There are several *pucca* houses at the village constructed during the last decade. It appears that owing to the changes of the course of the river Gandak people were averse to the construction of *pucca* houses before.

According to 1951 census the village has an acreage of 7,360 and the population is 7,297. There is an inspection bungalow at Patjirwa. It has a post office.

PEEPRAH.—A village with a past history in the headquarters subdivision about nine miles from Motihari. Peeprah factory was built by the Dutch and was sold to the Bettiah Estate, was vested in the State of Bihar by the abolition of zamindari. According to 1951 census the village has a population of 1,108 persons and an area of 313 acres. It contains a police-station, a high school and a post office. There is a colony of displaced persons from East Pakistan settled in the neighbourhood.

RAMNAGAR.—A village in the Bettiah subdivision situated 30 miles to the north-west of Bettiah. The village contains the residence of an ancient family of zamindars, who trace back their descent to Ratan Singh of Chitor, who migrated to Nepal, where he and his descendants carved out a small principality for themselves, Raja Mukund Singh, the sixth in descent from Ratan Singh, divided the territory over which he ruled among his four sons. Prithvi Pal Singh became the Raja of Butwal. Langi Singh, Raja of Makwapur, and Raj Singh was Raja of Rajpur, while another son, Burangi Singh is described as being Raja of "the mountains of Telhoni or Telahu". It is from this Raja that the Ramnagar family is descended. Owing, it is said, to the oppression of the king of Nepal, the head of this branch took refuge in "the lowlands of the mountains of Tribeni" and established himself at Ramnagar, where the family have remained ever since. They own one of the largest estates in the district, including the Sumeshwar hills and the once valuable forests on them. The title of Raja was first conferred by the Emperor Alam in 1676 and was confirmed by the British Government in 1860.

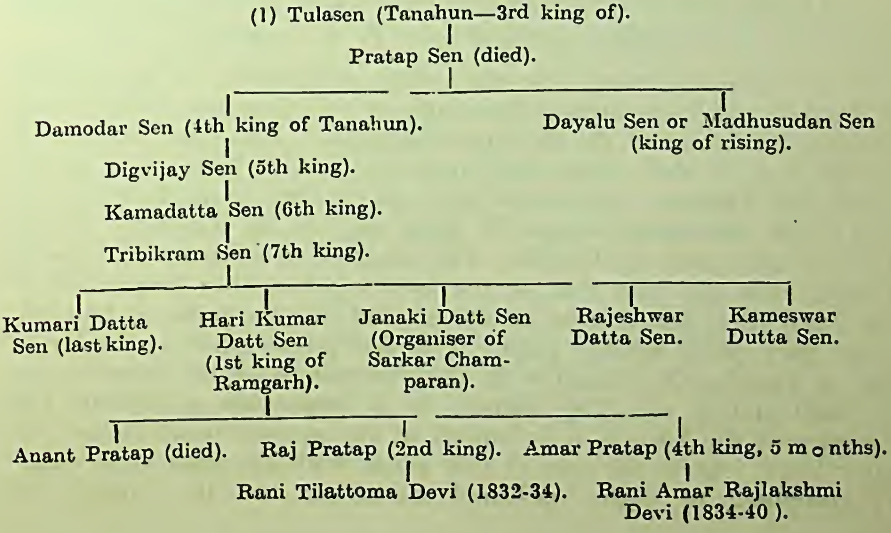
The late Raja having no sons adopted Shree Panch Mohan Bikram Shah *alias* Rama Raja during his life time. As he made three wills before he died, there has been a long dispute between the Rani, his widow, and the Rama Raja for possession of the estate. The case went up to the Privy Council and the Rani won it and is now in possession and lives at Ramnagar." (*Vide District Gazetteer of Champaran* revised by R. E. Swanzy in 1932.)

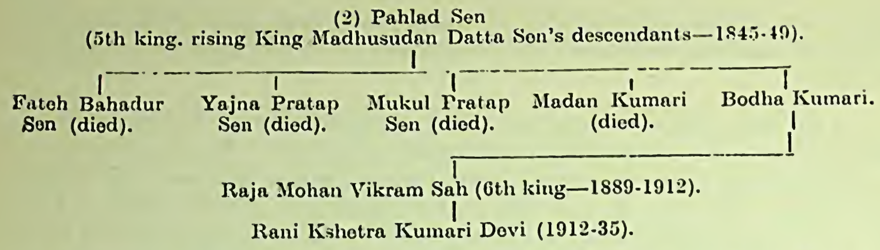
The estate had vested in the Government by the abolition of zamindari. The village has an area of 184 acres and a population of 1,457. It contains a police-station and an inspection bungalow besides the estate hospital with 6 beds. There is also one maternity centre. A Community Development Block has been opened with its headquarters at Ramnagar which has got a number of health centres. Improvement of the condition of the Tharus, a semi-aboriginal tribes is a special assignment of this project.

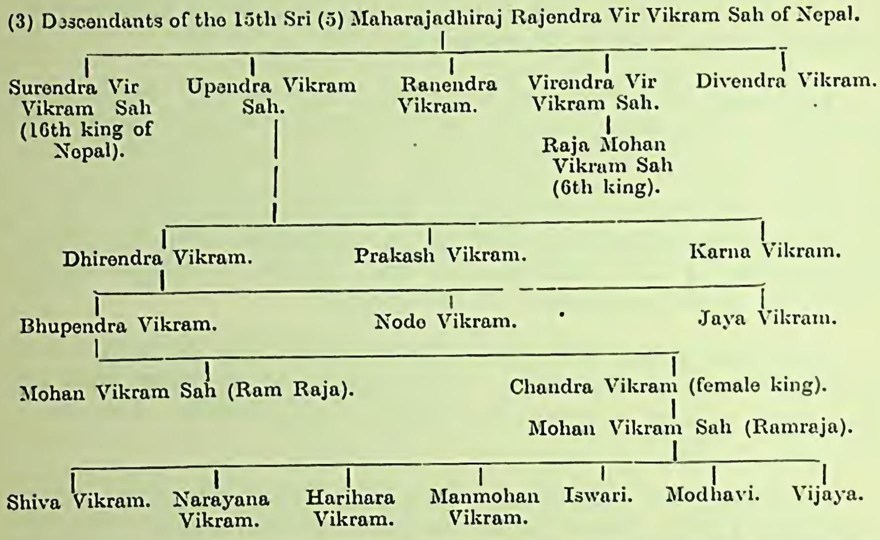
Harinagar Sugar Mill, one of the largest sugar mills in North Bihar, is situated at Ramnagar. The location of the Sugar Mill has encouraged a large seasonal fluctuation of population. The Sugar Mill runs a school.

Ramnagar has a combined Posts and Telegraphs Office and a Telephone Office. There is also an office of the Irrigation Division and the Tribeni Canal.

Genealogical table of Ramnagar Raj family.


(1) Tulasen (Tanahun—3rd king of).
Pratap Sen (died).
Damodar Sen (4th king of Tanahun).
Dayalu Sen or Madhusudan Sen (king of rising).
Digvijay Sen (5th king).
Kamadatta Sen (6th king).
Tribikram Sen (7th king).
Kumari Datta Sen (last king).
Hari Kumar Datt Sen (1st king of Ramgarh).
Janaki Datt Sen (Organiser of Sarkar Champaran).
Rajeshwar Datta Sen.
Kameswar Dutta Sen.
Anant Pratap (died).
Raj Pratap (2nd king).
Amar Pratap (4th king, 5 months).
Rani Tilattoma Devi (1832-34).
Rani Amar Rajlakshmi Devi (1834-40).


(2) Pahlad Sen
(5th king. rising King Madhusudan Datta Son's descendants—1845-49).
Fateh Bahadur Sen (died).
Yajna Pratap Sen (died).
Mukul Pratap Sen (died).
Madan Kumari (died).
Bodha Kumari.
Raja Mohan Vikram Sah (6th king—1889-1912).
Rani Kshetra Kumari Devi (1912-35).


(3) Descendants of the 15th Sri (5) Maharajadhiraj Rajendra Vir Vikram Sah of Nepal.
Surendra Vir Vikram Sah (16th king of Nepal).
Upendra Vikram Sah.
Ranendra Vikram.
Virendra Vir Vikram Sah.
Divendra Vikram.
Raja Mohan Vikram Sah (6th king).
Dhirendra Vikram.
Prakash Vikram.
Karna Vikram.
Bhupendra Vikram.
Node Vikram.
Jaya Vikram.
Mohan Vikram Sah (Ram Raja).
Chandra Vikram (female king).
Mohan Vikram Sah (Ramraja).
Shiva Vikram.
Narayana Vikram.
Harihara Vikram.
Manmohan Vikram.
Iswari.
Modhavi.
Vijaya.

Vide Champaran (Hindi) by Shri Bombahadur Singh Nepali 'Magan', published in March, 1939, Op. p. 146. (authenticity nor vouched for).

RAMPURWA.—The following description occurs in the *District Gazetteer of Champaran,* published by R. E. Swanzy in 1938 :—

" A village situated near the village of Pipariya, 32 miles north of Bettiah and four miles to the south of the Sumeswar Hills, in the extreme north-east of the Bettiah subdivision. Less than half a mile to the west of the village, and near the eastern bank of a stream called the Harbora, is one of the edict pillars erected by Asoka, which was discovered about 30 years ago by Mr. Carlleyle of the Archæological Survey of India. He learnt of its existence from some Tharus, who told him that, in the locality which they frequented in the Tarai there was a stone in the ground like the pillar at Lauriya, which they called Bhim's Lath. The Rampurwa pillar is similar to that of Lauriya Nandangarh in the dimensions of the diameter of the shaft at top, viz., 26¼ inches; it is impossible to measure the diameter of the base as it is buried in the ground much below the water level. As in the case of that pillar both the shaft and capital are composed of highly polished sandstone, and the capital has a circular abacus ornamented with a row of geese pecking their food. It was originally surmounted with the figure of a lion, but this has disappeared, only the feet and part of the legs being left. The edicts on the pillar are, word for word, the same as those on the pillars at Lauriya Araraj and Lauriya Nandangarh. Its base, a shattered stupa, 6 feet high still stands *in situ*, midway between two low earthen mounds covered with brick fragments, evidently the remains of some Buddhistic monuments. The greater portion of the shaft now lies within a swamp, almost entirely under water, some 800 or 1,000 feet to the north of its base; evidently an attempt was made to remove it, but was given up on account of the difficulty and costliness of the task. Close to it stands the capital, which was disconnected from the shaft by Mr. Garrick in 1881, in order to take a photograph of it. These two masses of stone were connected by a solid bolt of pure copper, 24½ inches long, both ends of which show that even in the age of Asoka era Hindus had discovered the destructive properties of iron when used as a fastening for stones. It is in contemplation to restore the fallen column to its original position. To the north-east and west of the pillar, there are the remains of some brick ruins buried in the ground.

The Tharus of the neighbourhood tell a curious story to account for the origin of the broken base of the pillar standing between the two mounds. They say that Bhim was carrying two loads of earth in two baskets suspended from a pole across his shoulder; when he reached this spot, the pole broke, and the two loads of earth consequently fell down on the ground on either side, and thus formed the two mounds; while the broken pole stuck in the ground in the midst, and became petrified, and thus formed the broken pillar. It has been suggested that the destruction of this pillar like the injury done to that at Lauriya Nandangarh, is due to some zealous followers of the army of Mir Jumla, which was then on its way back from Bengal after the defeat of Sultan Shuja, the brother of Aurangzeb. (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Vols. XVI and XXII; *Report, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle,* 1901-02.)"

The present population of Rampurwa according to 1951 census is 584. There is a Roman Catholic Church and a small Christian colony. Rampurwa near the *terai* of Nepal attracts merchants from Nepal side. The incidence of health is rather poor in this belt. A certain amount of timber trade passes through Rampurwa. It has a Post office.

RAXAUL.—In the last District Gazetteer, Raxaul was described as a village in the extreme north-east of the district of Nepal frontier. It was mentioned that it contained a police-station and a railway station which was the junction of the Bengal and North-Western Railway and the Nepal Light Railway and that there were three rice mills and a large traffic from Nepal passed through this village.

It was further mentioned that there was a bungalow belonging to the Resident of Nepal and the town of Birganj, which is the headquarters of the Nepalese zila of Bara, is 2 miles away across the border. Raxaul is very much changed since the last District Gazetteer was published. It would not be proper to call the place a village any longer. In 1951 census the population was of 6,594 persons and the population has increased considerably since 1951 census. It is now the headquarters of an Executive Engineer of Irrigation Division and a Community Development Block besides being a thana headquarters. It has a combined Posts and Telegraphs Office, a cinema house and an aerodrome with a future.

Some of the Ranas, it is understood, had financial interest in Bengal and North-Western Railway when it was run by a Company and were keen to develop the trade and commerce of the area. They have been very successful about it. Trade and commerce have been increasing very rapidly in this sector. The Nepal Railway has also a station at Raxaul and forms an important link in the turnover. There are several rice mills at Raxaul. Very brisk trade is carried on in grains, cigarettes, timber, etc. The big aerodrome which is now under construction at a distance of about one and a half miles from the town is within the Indian territory. It is understood, when opened the airport will be on the map of international air traffic. In the last District Gazetteer it was mentioned that a medical mission had recently been established and had a fully equipped doctors and trained nurses. This institution has developed into a fairly sizeable hospital of about 100 beds and there are a number of qualified surgeons and physicians. The hospital is well equipped and carries out different operations. It is a very popular institution and people from even near Kathmandu come to this mission hospital for treatment. The hospital needs expansion. The Sisters and the Doctors present a very well-knit team dedicated to the service of humanity.

The recognition of the growing importance of Raxaul, which is situated on the border between India and Nepal, led to the formation of the Notified Area Committee. The Government notification no. 6964-L.S.-G., dated the 23rd August 1955, brought Raxaul with the purview of the Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act, 1922 by abolishing the previous Union Board and by constituting the Raxaul Notified Area Committee. The area over which the Raxaul Notified Area Committee has jurisdiction is about 3.58 square miles and is bounded on the north by villages Pantoka and Nepal, on the south by villages Kaurihar and Hardia, on the east by Tolas Sahadewa and Mahdewa of village Noneya and on the west by villages Chikani and Jokiari. The census report of 1951 shows that the population of Raxaul Bazar was 6,576 but the population has increased rapidly thereafter. According to a rough estimate, the population of Raxaul Notified Area at the beginning of 1950 should be about 10,000.

Raxaul is situated on the border between India and Nepal and has thus strategic importance. Since Raxaul is the principal gateway to Nepal, its international importance is on the increase. Raxaul has a flourishing trade and commerce, is an important junction for North Eastern Railway. The line from Sugauli to Raxaul and the line from Narkatiaganj to Samastipur meet at this place. Besides, Raxaul is the terminus of the Nepal Government Railway, the track of which runs from Raxaul to Amlekhganj in Nepal. Raxaul is well connected by road also and is thus served by a number of road transport agencies. The construction of the National Highway from Muzaffarpur to Raxaul has meant easy access to this place of growing importance.

To cope with civic needs of such a place, the Notified Area Committee is trying hard, but the task is by no means easy. In fact, Raxaul is very much in need of a comprehensive master plan for meeting this challenge and also to make it attractive to the large number of foreign tourists already pouring in that place every month, every year.

There is a high school at Raxaul and a telephone exchange office has been recently opened. The presence of a number of important Marwari families and dealers of many nationality connotes the growing commercial importance of Raxaul. With the roadway from Kathmandu to Raxaul being thrown open and the possibility of Nepal Light Railway being broadgauged in the near future, Raxaul is bound to have a very important and responsible future.

SAGARDIH.—The village Sagardih in the headquarters subdivision has a population of 1,750 according to 1951 census and occupies an area of 1,780 acres. It has a post office and a lower primary school.

Regarding the mounds situated close to the village of Sagardih the following account from the last District Gazetteer stands good :—

"The mound, which undoubtedly marks the remains of a Buddhistic stupa, is 37 feet high with a circular base nearly 200 feet in diameter; but it is now thickly overgrown with jungle, so that it is difficult to form an accurate idea of its original shape. The excavations made by General Cunningham have shown, however, that the stupa stands on a paved terrace raised 20 feet above the ground. He was of opinion that it was built over the remains of an older stupa which had become a ruin. Between the foundations, and in the very midst of the remains of the earlier stupa he found the roots of a palm tree still preserving their original upright position, from which he concluded that the ruins of the old stupa must have been overgrown with jungle before the mediæval stupa was built, and that the trees were cleared away and the ruins levelled to receive its foundations, leaving the roots of this single palm embedded in the bricks of the older stupa. From the general appearance, as well as from the relative proportions of height and diameter, General Cunningham concluded that it must be a mediæval building, probably of the ninth or tenth century A. D. The former stupa must have been several centuries older, as a long time must have elapsed before it became so completely ruined that only its foundation was left, to be overgrown with palm trees. The great paved platform, 20 feet high and 175 feet in diameter on which the present stupa was erected, must date back to the same time. It was faced with a wall of brick all round, and as the bricks of this wall were all of the smaller size found in the later stupa, the wall itself is most probably of the same age.

The mound which is called Bhisa, i.e., simply the mound, is attributed to Raja Sagara, the solar hero, and is therefore also known locally as Sagargarh or Sagara's castle. It stands on an elevated piece of ground, 500 feet long by 300 feet broad, on the eastern bank of an oblong sheet of water called Gaya Pokhar. A short distance to the south-east there is a fine large tank 1,000 feet square which is called simply Pokhar or the tank, and sometimes Bauddha Pokhar, a name which seems to point to the Buddhistic stupa close by. Its position in the midst of a vast plain of low-lying rice-fields is not an inviting one, as the country all round it must be wide swamp in the rainy season.

On the eastern embankment of the Bauddha Pokhar, there is a small shrine of the *Gram Devata,* or village godling, before which the villagers make offerings of flowers and sacrifice a young goat or sheep. At the foot of the mound stands a small brick tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Ghulam Husain Shah, who is more commonly known by the name of Mallang or the madman. It is a small brick building only 13½ feet square, but it has 15 bighas of land attached to it, and is about 100 years old. A few hundred feet to the east there are two bridges on the high road, one of them with six piers and two abutments, built of materials taken from the old stupa on the mound 50 years ago, when the road was being made. There is no tradition connected with the Sagardih, except the common story told at many other places that travellers used to find cooking pots lying ready for their use, but an avaricious Baniya having carried off some on his pony, the cooking vessels have never been seen since. This probably dates back to the old Buddhist times when travellers received hospitality in the monasteries (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Vol. XVI; *Report, Archæological Survey, Bengal Circle,* 1901-02)."

SANGRAMPUR.—It is a village seven miles from Gobindganj. It is a business centre and there is a District Board hospital. It has also a combined Posts and Telegraphs office. The name of the village is said to have been given after the name of Lava-Kusha's fight with Lord Ramchandra's army which is believed to have been fought out here. There is a mound near a pond at the place and it is believed that the mound signifies the abode of Lava and Kusha. According to 1951 census it has a population of 7,551 souls.

SARAIYA GOPAL.—It is a village in the National Extension Service Block, Patahi I in the Sadar subdivision. There is a Dih called Kasturiya Dih in this village which is spoken of as being the site of an ancient town. There are some very old wells. There has been no excavation. It has a population of 2,806 souls according to the census of 1951. It has a post office.

SARAYAMAN.—Situated at a distance of about four miles to the west of Bettiah town, Sarayaman is a lake which is a beauty spot. The lake used to attract a large variety of birds, both residents and winter visitors. The water of the lake is supposed to have digestive value. The lake offers scope for boating and could be well-developed. There is a Forest Bungalow which is capable of improvement. In case tourism could be developed in Champaran district, and there is no reason why it cannot be done with plenty of wild flora, fauna and avifauna, Sarayaman could be made into an additional point of attraction.

SHIKARPUR.—With a railway station Narkatiaganj is a township about 25 miles north of Bettiah. In the last District Gazetteer Shikarpur was described as a large village. According to 1951 census the population is 6,576. Narkatiaganj, the railway station of Shikarpur, has the largest railway yard in Champaran district. The railway station is responsible for a big turnover of business in grains, sugarcane, timber, etc. A part of the trade and commerce is carried through roadways. The Swadeshi Sugar Mill, Ltd., Narkatiaganj has a daily cane-crushing capacity of 900 tons. Shikarpur is at the centre of a very fertile sugarcane tract. There is a police-station, a Sub-Registrar's Office, a District Board dispensary, a District Board dak bungalow and a Sanskrit school. It has also a combined Post and Telegraph Office. Shikarpur is the headquarters of an Anchal. There is a railway dispensary run by the Railway Authority at Narkatiaganj. The State Government runs a hospital with six beds, four for males and two for females. The incidence of goitre is rather high in this area.

SIKTA.—A village in Bettiah subdivision with a population of 3,212 souls according to 1951 census. It has a police-station. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block. It has one Middle School, one Lower Primary School, a Library and a combined Post and Telegraph Office.

SINGHASANI.—The description in the last District Gazetteer was as follows :—

"A village in the headquarters subdivision seven miles to the north of Segauli, a short distance to the east of the Gadh river. Half a mile to the west of the village is a large mound, 130 feet long by 100 feet broad covered with broken bricks, to which the villagers give the name of Unchadih. This mound is believed to be the remains of an old fort, and has four larger mounds at the four corners, which may have been bastions but are more likely the foundations and towers. A road about 14 feet broad leads up to the north face of the mound, which contained the entrance to the fort. This road passes right through it and can be traced for nearly half a mile in a south-westerly direction; it is occasionally used by bullock cart-drivers travelling from one village to another with their wares. The villagers have no traditions concerning these remains, except that they mark a ruined fort. Mr. Garrick was of opinion, however, that 'the name of this village would almost show it to have at some remote period directly connected with royalty or the seat of Government. Perhaps a capital city once stood on this site, albeit, in the early history of India, there were such a plurality of petty chiefs governing small tracts of country that the existence of a throne (*singhasan*) did not always tell of a large city' (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Vol. XVI)."

The population of the village has considerably increased. In 1951 census the village was recorded to have a population of 4,101 persons and an area of 2,710 acres. It has a post office.

SITAKUND.—A village in the headquarters subdivision situated near the Pipra railway station, ten miles to the south-east of Motihari and half a mile to the north of Madhuban on the Sikrahna river. According to 1951 census the population is 302 and the area of the village is only 251 acres. But the importance of the village is in its ancient remains. The last District Gazetteer has the following about the ancient remains of Sitakund : "The village contains the remains of an ancient fort the shape of which is an irregular square, 450 feet long on each side, with large round bastions at the corners and in the middle of each face. The ramparts of the fort are formed of two separated brick walls with 8½ feet of earth filled in between them; the outer brick wall is 10 feet thick, and the inner one 3 feet, so that the total thickness of the rampart is 21½ feet. On the east, west and south there was a single entrance, and on the north there were apparently two gates; but the rampart on this face is nearly obliterated so that one can only make a guess at the position of the gates by the depressions on the edge of the mound. The brick walls are still from 10 to 12 feet in height, but they must have been much higher originally; as the earthen rampart is generally about 20 feet in height, the whole height of the rampart with its parapet could not have been less than 30 or even 35 feet. In some places, on the west and north, there are traces of a moat. Altogether the Sitakund fort must have been a place of some strength when guns were unknown, and the thick lofty walls could only be attacked by escalade.

Inside the fort is a holy tank, to which the name Sitakund peculiarly applies as Sita, the wife of Rama, bathed there. It is a deep circular pond surrounded by brick walls with four ghats leading down to it. A great *mela* is held there on the Ramnavami when several thousands of pious Hindus assemble to do honour to Rama and Sita. There are several temples and shrines round it; the principal temple, which stands near the western side of the tank, is a white-washed building with octagonal turrets at the four corners and a domed roof. It enshrines 8 well preserved images, viz., images of Surya, Hanuman and Vishnu, an image of Ravana, with 20 arms and 10 heads, five of which only are shown on the carving; another of Mahishamardini or Durga in the act of killing a buffalo demon; and two images of Ganesh, one seated with four arms and one dancing with eight arms. On the southern rampart of this fort, close to the middle bastion, there are two small places of worship under trees, one dedicated to Garh Devi and the other to Baran Bir; the former is a tutelary goddess of the fort, and the latter a deified ghost or the spirit of a man who met a violent death. On the top of the western rampart, immediately opposite the principal temple, and under the shade of a magnificent tree, there is a small terrace called *Jogi-ka-baithak* or the hermit's seat; and in the northern part of the fort there are a few tombs (*samadhi*) of Hindu asetics (*jogis*). (*Reports, Archæological Survey, India,* Volume XVI)."

SUGAULI.—A growing township now has been described in the last Gazetteer as follows : " A village in the headquarters subdivision nearly half-way between Bettiah and Motihari, is the headquarters of a union board and contains a police thana, a District Board dispensary, a District Board bungalow and a railway station. It has considerable historical interest as it is the place where the Nepalese treaty of 1815 was signed, and was the headquarters of General Ochterlony during the last Nepalese war. Cantonments were built there after the Nepalese war and were occupied in the Mutiny of 1857 by the 12th Regiment of Irregular Horse, commanded by Major Holmes. As soon as the first symptoms of unrest appeared in Bihar Major Holmes declared for prompt and vigorous repression but up to the last he had complete confidence in the loyalty of his own men. This confidence was misplaced and he and his wife were murdered one day in July when they were out driving.

The remaining Europeans at Sugauli were all murdered except one little child. Traces of the cantonments may be seen to this day. A bund was built to protect them from inundation and near the banks of the river are a few remains of the Colonel's bungalow and the outline of his compound. Also there are traces of the officers' mess house and further away of the lines. There are villages near but none actually on the site which gives the impression of being a silent and haunted spot. Not far beyond the place of the Colonel's bungalow is a ruined palace built as a summer residence by one of the Maharajas of Bettiah, also a wonderful old well, which is very well preserved. There is also a fine temple standing in its own grounds on the banks of the Sikrahna.

There is a small cemetery on the road from the ghat. According to the census of 1951 the population is 9,106. There is now a big Sugar Mill, namely, the Sugauli Sugar Works, Limited, Sugauli with a daily cane-crushing capacity of 900 tons and has double sulphitation plants. There is a combined Post and Telegraph Office at Sugauli. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block.

SUGAON.—It is a village within police-station Sugauli in the Sadar subdivision with a population of 5,739 according to 1951 census. It has a post office. It is said that this village Sugaon five miles from Sugauli was once the capital of Tirhut. The Emperor Tughlak had appointed one Kameshwar Thakur as ruler of the area. His son Bhogeshwar Singh succeeded him. The family reigned for over 300 years. Shiva Singh was the most famous of all the rulers of his family. He fought with the king of Delhi and made himself independent in 1402. But after a lapse of three years he was overcome by Emperor Tughlak and was imprisoned. His wife seeing no hope of his return became *Sati*.

SUMESWAR.—The following description occurs in the last revised *District Gazetteer of Champaran* :—

" A fort in the Bettiah subdivision, situated on the summit of the Sumeswar hills, at a height of 2,884 feet above sea level. The fort which stands on the edge of a sharp precipice, is now in ruins, but its remains are well defined, and reservoirs cut out of the solid rock, in which water was stored for the use of the inhabitants, can still be seen; a temple bell of remarkably sweet tone, which is an object of considerable veneration, also hangs in the ruins to the east of the fort. From the ridge upon which Fort Sumeswar is situated, a magnificent view of the snows and of the intervening valleys and low hills situated in Nepal can be seen; the ridge here forms the boundary between Champaran and Nepal. An inspection bungalow has been erected about 200 feet below the crest of the ridge, and residents of the district occasionally reside there when they require change of air, as the temperature ranges about 10° lower than in the plains."

Sumeswar is a beauty spot. The natural scenery, the avifauna and the botany of the area should attract the visitors. Unfortunately the place has not been as much publicised as could have been done. If tourism could be developed in Champaran district, Sumeswar will be an object of interest. The ascent to the top of Sumeswar is interesting and commands excellent views. There is an old temple of Shiva in a dilapidated condition which stands on the top of Sumeswar. This temple is visited by quite a large number of pilgrims in different seasons. Sumeswar is in the Tharuhat area where the Tharus, a semi-aboriginal tribe have been accultured in the last few decades. The area is of interest to the anthropologists as well.

THAKRAHA.—A village in Bettiah subdivision with a population of 3,050 souls according to 1951 census.

TINKONI.—It is a village under police-station Adapur where remains of old buildings and some bricks have been found. It is said that in the remotest past there existed a palace of Rani Behula. There has been no proper excavation by which probably more relics would have been found. It has a population of 3,414 souls according to the census of 1951. It has a post office.

TRIBENI GHAT.—The last District Gazetteer has the following description :—

"A beautiful spot in the extreme north-west of the district, where the Great Gandak first touches British territory. One side of the *ghat* is in Tribeni village in Nepal and the other side in the village of Bhainsalotan in British India. There is a rough but very picturesque road leading to it, which crosses the Tribeni canal at Sidhao and passes the old police outpost of Harnatanr. This road is used by bullock carts. About a mile and a half downstream from the *ghat* are the headworks of the Tribeni canal, and the P. W. D. dispensary and Inspection Bungalow, which are reached by a very narrow but beautiful motor road along the canal bank. The name Bhainsalotan means the buffaloes wallow and is apparently derived from the fact that the place used to be the haunt of the wild buffaloes of the Terai. The view from the canal sluice gate, of the river, and the mountains is really most beautiful.

"The name Tribeni means the three rivers, and is derived from the fact that three streams unite here soon after they quit the hills, viz., the Great Gandak, the Panchnad and the Sonaha. The place is considered sacred on this account, and also because it is believed to be the site at which the fight commenced between the Lords of the forest and the water, Gaj and Garah, the elephant and the crocodile. According to the *Srimat Bhagbat*, there was in olden times a vast lake round the Trikut hill, which had, as the name implies, three towering peaks, crowned with dense forest and infested by wild animals. In this lake lived a crocodile of enormous size; and one day when a huge elephant came with a herd to bathe there, the crocodile caught him by the leg and tried to drag him into deeper water. The struggle continued for thousands of years, all the crocodiles and elephants joining in the contest. At last, the elephant, beginning to weaken, prayed to the Supreme God, Hari, to help him. His prayer was heard, and Hari saved him from the grip of the crocodile in the presence of Hara and other gods. According to Hindu mythology, the crocodile had in a previous life been a Gandharva chief, named Huhu, and the elephant, a king of Pandya, Indradyumna by name. A short way up the picturesque valley of the Gandak is the traditional site of the battle, where the people still point with awe and wonder to some deep holes in the limestone, some of which are the exact shape of the foot of an elephant, while others resemble the imprints of an alligator's foot. These curious holes are probably due to the action of water churning round some hard stone embedded in the limestone; but the people believe that they were made by the Gaj and Garah in the soft mud when the fight began, and then were turned into hard stone and will remain for ever. A large fair is held at the point where the Panchnad and Gandak meet at the time of *Magh Sankranti* in February when a temporary village of grass huts springs up on a broad expanse of shingle in the river bed, and thousands of villagers flock in to bathe and trade. The site of the fair is half in Nepal and half in British territory, and an iron post marks the boundary. On the opposite side of the river in Tribeni itself a brisk trade is also carried on during the fair, one of the most conspicuous features of the *bazar* at this time being piles of Nepalese oranges brought down for sale.

"At the point where the District Board road ends there is a temple built by the Bettiah Raj looking down upon the stream, and also the remains of an old traffic registration station. On the other side of the Panchnad are a Nepalese shrine and a police outpost in charge of a havildar. The Great Gandak forms the boundary between the two Nepalese Commissionerships of the Eastern and the Western Tarai, and the outpost on the other side of the Panchnad is under Birgunj while the outpost at Tribeni is under Butwal. A little way up the Panchnad, opposite the point where the Sonaha comes down, is a small shrine dedicated to Sita, as there is a tradition that it was here that Sita watched the fight between Rama and his sons Lava and Kusha. The beds of these two streams present some scenes of great natural beauty. A narrow limpid stream wanders from side to side between the shingle; on both sides the banks rise to a height of 50 to 100 feet covered with vegetation and crowned with leafy trees; and all round are hillocks with a thick growth of *sabai* grass.

"Passing along the narrow bed of the Kalapani, an ominous name given to a stream which flows into the Panchnad a short distance below its confluence with the Sonaha, we come to a hill, on the top of which are the remains of the plinth of an old bungalow, now almost inaccessible through the growth of weeds and creepers. All round are dwarf trees, the leaves of which seem strangely familiar, for this is all that remains of a tea garden which Mr. Gibbon, Manager of the Bettiah Raj, tried to start many years ago; the place is now the home of sambhar and occasionally of tigers and leopards. Both the Panchnad and the Sonaha wash down small fragments of gold, and it is a common sight to see gold washers working at curious little dams of land in the beds of both streams."

Much of the sylvan beauty of Tribeni *ghat* has disappeared in the last two decades. The jungles near about Tribeni *ghat* used to attract rhinoceros, and bisons only some years before. Man's hunger has cleared jungles and brought lands on the margin under the plough. The *jhils* near about Tribeni *ghat* and the bed of Sone used to be visited by thousand of birds in the winter season. Due to indiscriminate shooting, drying up of the river bed, disappearance of all the *chaurs* meaning loss or protection and natural environs for the avifauna we do not get even a fraction of the visitors now.

Tribeni *ghat*—By a head-sluice on river Gandak at Bhainsalotan the surface-water of Gandak river is diverted through channel for irrigation. There had been a proposal for throwing a weir across (anicut) the Gandak and take much more volume of water. Nepal owns half of the river Gandak. The proposal has been renewed in Gandak Project. There will be a subsidiary canal on both sides of the river. One set of channels will run through Nepal on the other side of the river. Nepal has agreed to the Gandak Project which has now been taken up.

TURKAULIA.—It has been described in the last District Gazetteer as follows : " Which was one of the largest indigo concerns in the district, is now a Bettiah Raj circle. A deed of July 12 1816 records the purchase of Turkaulia by Mathew Moran and Henry Hill from William Wood, indigo planter of Mirzapur. The factory remained in the possession of the Hill family for over a hundred years, e.g., until it was sold to the Bettiah Raj in 1927-28." Turkaulia has since vested in the State of Bihar due to the abolition of zamindari and the vesting of the parent estate of Bettiah. The population of Turkaulia according to 1951 census is 4,430. There is a combined Post and Telegraph Office and a Lower Primary, Urdu Lower Primary, Middle and High Schools. It is the headquarters of a Community Development Block.

APPENDIX FOR PLACES OF INTEREST.

List of colonies for displaced persons already set up in the district of Champaran.

Name of the colony.	Area of land.	Families covered	
		Agri.	Non-agri.
1. Majharia	482.82	119	18
2. Sirisia	215.62	62	6
3. Bairiya	274.65	60	8
4. Lalsaraiya	688.23	141	23
5. Harpur	299.16	52	..
6. Sirquiah	372.42	83	..
7. Parsauni	1,003.93	219	..
8. Parsa	947.66	168	..
9. Chautarwa	593.00	141	4
10. Dudhaura	145.38	35	..
11. Materia	153.28	34	2
12. Pachrukha I	63.24	15	..
13. Pachrukha II	194.35	25	..
14. Bhirbhiria	219.89	42	..
15. Biranchi	825.06	162	2
16. Dumri	229.97	52	1
17. Laxmipur	99.35	23	..
18. Semra	435.34	112	..
19. Belwa Mokari	181.20	42	..
20. Sirsa	296.34	70	..
21. Dhekha	197.69	47	
22. Hanumangarh	437.88	124	..
23. Kothia Punas	107.71	25	..
Total	8,464.17	1,833	64

List of colonies for displaced persons proposed to be set up in the district of Champaran.

Name of colonies.	Area of land.	No. of families to be rehabilitated.	
		Agri.	Non-agri.
1. Dhumatanr	920.00	136	..
2. Barwakala	338.38	70	..
3. Kaulapur	219.74	27	..
4. Parsaunibaji	33.06	10	..
5. Sekhaunia, Phulwaria and Oderwa	52.25	13	..
6. Dumri (Banwari)	78.85	18	..
7. Tilojpur	394.34	550	..
8. Dhokraha	447.74		
9. Shivapurba	438.92		
10. Kamta Rajpur	342.13		
11. Pipra	275.75		
12. Dumri	514.30		
13. Gaunaha	76.85		
14. Basamanpur	356.16	650	..
15. Bariarpur	176.47		
16. Surajpur	265.00		
17. Rulahi I	611.21		
18. Rulahi II	384.89		
19. Dharmuha	582.68		
20. Basatpur	208.40		
21. Jhakraha	189.84		
22. Pachrukha	32.79		
Total	6,939.75		

Anchalwise Hats *and* Bazars *and* Melas *of the Champaran district.*

Hats and *Bazars.*			*Melas.*	
Name of Anchal.	Total no. settled	Total amount in rupees at which settled in 1957-58.	Total no. settled.	Total amount in rupees at which settled in 1957-58.
1. Bettiah	36	41,600	8	14,959
2. Sikta	11	6,049	9	4,956
3. Bagaha I	11	9,748	4	1,755
4. Lauriya	15	5,120	2	3,060
5. Ramnagar ..	2	7,233	4	700
6. Shikarpur ..	21	34,594	8	7,145
7. Dhanaha	10	1,513	1	130
8. Sidhawan Bagaha II	9	2,644	2	350
9. Puner	12	7,128	1	1,400
10. Motihari	19	19,251	2	85
11. Adapur	22	23,427	2	10
12. Mehsi	11	2,728	1	5,600
13. Chakia	40	14,517	5	2,645
14. Tukawali.. ..	15	8,485	2	134
15. Dhaka	10	8,435	1	1,645
16. Chairaiya.. ..	3	7,480	2	16
17. Patahi	5	2,431	1	325
18. Pakrideyal ..	10	1,986	..	..
19. Araraj	41	7,558	8	1,463
20. Sugauli	11	4,347	4	153

Railway stations in Champaran.

(Trunk line.)

Muzaffarpur-Narkatiaganj Section—(1) Mehsi, (2) Chakia, (3) Pipra, (4) Jiudhara, (5) Motihari, (6) Semra, (7) Sagauli Junction, (8) Majhowlia, (9) Bettiah, (10) Kumarbagh, (11) Chanpatia, (12) Sathi, (13) Narkatiaganj Junction.

Samastipur-Narkatiaganj Section—(1) Gurhauwa Halt, (2) Kendwa Chinpur, (3) Ghorasahan, (4) Chauradano, (5) Adapur, (6) Raxaul Junction, (7) Bhelwa, (8) Sikta, (9) Marjadwa Halt, (10) Gokhale, (11) Narkatiaganj Junction.

(Branch line.)

Raxaul-Sagauli Chord—(1) Sagauli Junction, (2) Ramgarhwa, (3) Masnadih, (4) Raxaul Junction.

Bhikna-Thoree-Narkatiaganj—(1) Bhikna Thoree, (2) Gaunaha, (3) Amolwa, (4) Narkatiaganj Junction.

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